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This study was conducted to explore the idea that the Negro dialect operates as a source of interference in the acquisition of reading skills by Negro children. Two first grade classes from an Oakland, California, inner city school were chosen to participate in this experiment. The pupils were all pretested. Half of them were then randomly chosen to be the experimental group and subsequently received special dialect lessons in certain features of standard English. The control pupils received no special lessons. It was hypothesized that (1) in 8 weeks, Negro children could be taught to use elements of standard English dialect which did not occur in their native dialect; (2) this knowledge would have a positive and significant influence on their word reading scores; and (3) dialect lessons would have a positive and significant influence on scores of word reading tests in which the relationship between letters and sounds was controlled. Posttests were administered to all the pupils at the conclusion of the program. On the basis of this testing, all three hypotheses were rejected. (WD)

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THE EFFECTS OF STANDARD DIALECT TRAINING ON NEGRO FIRST-GRADERS LEARNING TO READ

Dr. Richard Rystrom

Diablo Valley College

Concord, California

September 30, 1968

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. . . great scientists were never distracted by the fact-finding rage: they knew from the first what they were doing. Their task was always to relate the facts to each other, either as different cases of the same general fact, or as successive transformations of an initial fact according to some systematic principle, or (at an elementary stage of conception) as more and more exemplifications of "contingent laws," or generally observed uniformities.

The philosophical horizon widened in all directions at once, as horizons do with every upward step. . . . Most new discoveries are suddenly-seen things that were always there.

Susanne K. Langer
Philosophy in a New Key

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THE EFFECTS OF STANDARD DIALECT TRAINING
ON NEGRO FIRST-GRADERS LEARNING TO READ

Abstract

Richard Rystrom

Purpose This research was the first in a series to probe the relationships between the dialect spoken by Negro first graders and the problems they experience in learning to read. The study has provided useful background information about both materials to be used with these children and the integration of those materials with the reading program. The hypotheses for the study were: 1) in eight weeks, Negro children can be taught to use elements of standard English dialect which do not occur in their native dialect; 2) the knowledge of this additional dimension of dialect will have a positive and significant influence on word reading scores; 3) dialect training will have a positive and significant influence on word reading tests in which the relationship between letters and sounds is controlled.

Related research To date, there have been no other experimental studies to determine the relationship between Negro dialect and reading, although several writers have indicated the possibility that some interaction might be expected. They are: Bereiter and Engelmann; Loban; Deutsch; McDavid; and Strickland. The importance of phoneme-grapheme correspondence in English has been clearly stated by Bloomfield, Robert A. Hall, Jr., Charles Fries and Carl Lefevre. Ruddell's experimental study has suggested the importance of this relationship in the acquisition of decoding skills. In designing and using the materials for this study, the following general concepts were considered crucial: 1) the standard English dialect is to supplement, not replace, the children's dialect; 2) the dialect must be taught, not talked about; 3) teachers should teach the dialect they speak; 4) the materials must be sequential; 5) phonology should take precedence over syntax or vocabulary.

Methods During the first part of the research period, the materials were developed, arrangements were made with the Oakland, California Public Schools, and the pretests were administered. Two classes were chosen, and it was agreed that each teacher would continue to teach reading as she normally did. The classes were then divided randomly into two groups, and half of one teacher's class was joined with half of the other teacher's class. This group became the experimental group. The students in the remaining halves were joined to become the control group. The treatment time chosen did not intrude on the time set aside for reading. During the second period, the treatment group was given dialect lessons and the control group was read stories. During the final period, the posttests were given, the data were analyzed, and the final results written.

The following test instruments were used: 1) Rystrom's *Dialect Deviation Test*; 2) *Gates Word Pronunciation Test*; 3) Fry's *Phonetically Regular Words Oral Reading Test*.

Results At the end of the treatment period, a two-way analysis of variance was conducted, in order to measure teacher effect, treatment effect, and interaction between them. The F-scores on this analysis were not statistically significant. All three hypotheses were rejected.

Recommendations In designing and executing future research in this area, incorporation of the following suggestions may tend to clarify the relationships between dialect and reading for the population studied: 1) the amount of time allotted for change in dialect should be increased; 2) the dialect materials should parallel the reading materials; 3) tests to measure the reading abilities of deprived first grade children should be developed; 4) the lessons themselves should be intrinsically interesting and enjoyable for first grade children.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

A number of prominent educators have, in the last decade, suggested that dialect may be operating as a source of interference in the acquisition of reading skills for Negro children. This idea seems intuitively plausible, but has not yet been tested experimentally under controlled conditions. The research project described here is the first in a series of studies designed to explore the ways in which these two factors coincide, and to suggest additional research which would be of value.

Negro children whose dialect most typifies the "Negro dialect" might learn to read sooner and better if they spoke a dialect which more nearly approximates any of the other dialects of English. If it can be demonstrated that children in an experimental group, taught to speak selected features of one of these other dialects, have higher reading scores than children in a control group, one factor in the complex set of skills called reading will have been identified for this group.

STATEMENT OF HYPOTHESES

The hypotheses of this research project were:

1) In eight weeks, Negro children can be taught to use elements of standard English dialect which do not occur in their native dialect;
2) The knowledge of this additional dimension of dialect will have a positive and significant influence on word reading scores;
3) Dialect training will have a positive and significant influence on word reading tests in which the relationship between letters and sounds is controlled.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

phoneme - - a phoneme is a group of sounds in a particular language which are not functionally distinct; i.e., sounds which are acoustically different, but whose differences are not used to alter meaning. As speakers of English, we assign all sounds within a particular acoustic area as /p/, even though phonological differences between the /p/ in pin and spin can be demonstrated; the /p/ in /pin/ is aspirated, and would be written /pʰ/. The latter would be written /p¯/. Since we do not notice these differences, both sounds are grouped together in the general category of /p/. But if we voice either of these, the new pair is functionally distinct from the previous pair: /pin/ - - /bin/; /spin/ - - /sbin/. The last example could occur in an utterance as: Dick's been absent.

allophone - - an allophone is any of the non-distinctive sounds which may be grouped within a particular phoneme. The /p^{h}/ and /p^{-}/ already mentioned above are, in English, allophones of the same phoneme, /p/. A pair of sounds may be allophones in one language or dialect, phonemes in another. For instance, English phonemic /b/ and /v/ are allophones in Spanish. In most American dialects, coal and cold would be distinctive; in the speech of many Negroes, both words are homonymic: /kow$^{\text{əl}}$/.

morpheme - - a morpheme is the smallest unit of language which bears meaning. A morpheme is not the same as a word; the -s which can be suffixed to most nouns is a meaning-bearing affix which signals the sense of "more than one." Some morphemes can be prefixed in English, such as the un- form which frequently means "not." Morphemes are subdivided into free and bound, those which may occur without combining with other forms, and those which must combine. For example, the word unbeatables is composed of the following morphemes: un-, -beat-, -able-, -s. Only the second morpheme, -beat-, is a free morpheme, which normally occurs as a verb. The first suffix changes the verb to an adjective, the prefix negates the meaning, and the final suffix makes the entire expression a plural noun.

allomorph - - an allomorph is to a morpheme as an allophone is to a phoneme. That is, the written -ed, which is used to signal the past tense form of most verbs, is phonologically composed of three distinctive allomorphs:

/-t/

added to verbs ending in

/p/ /f/ /θ/ /š/ /č/ /k/;

/-d/

added to verbs ending in

/b/ /m/ /v/ /ð/ /z/ /l/
/ž/ /ǰ/ /g/ /r/ /ŋ/ /n/;

/-ɨd/

added to verbs ending in

/t/ /d/.

grapheme - - a grapheme is a functionally distinct unit of writing which changes meaning. It is composed of allographs; [a] and [A] are allographs of the same grapheme.

syntax - - phonemes and morphemes can be considered the building blocks of a language. These pieces are not sufficient in themselves to describe that language, because they do not contain any information about ordering or the relationships between the units. For example, a language composed of only the words a and b might produce any one of the following sentences: ab, aabb, aaabbb, etc. Or it might produce: ab, abab, ababab, etc. Obviously, these two sets of strings require different rules of ordering. Each would begin with the following:

Given: S

S --> M (--> means "is rewritten as")

The first of sentences would be generated by the additional rule:

M --> a [M] b (where [ ] indicates an optional element).

The second set is derived from:

M --> a b [M].

Syntax is that set of statements which describes the arrangement of phonemes and graphemes of any particular language.

phoneme-grapheme correspondence - - each phoneme in English is rather consistently represented by the same grapheme, and even the exceptions are fairly consistent. The -ough set of graphemes is well known for the number of phoneme clusters it can represent. However, it is immediately obvious that this is an exceptional case. There are a few words in English, particularly those which have a high frequency of occurrence, like again, every, and somewhat, which are especially troublesome. If we exclude these two hundred or so words from consideration, most of the remaining words are described by the following set of rules which assign a phoneme to each grapheme:

1) an unstressed vowel is pronounced as a schwa, /ə/, as in position /pəzísən/;
2) a vowel followed by a consonant and an -e is represented by the "long" sound, as in the words mate, Pete, bite, rode, cute;
3) stressed vowels and the consonants are pronounced as expected; that is, a as in hat, b as in bat, c as in cat, etc.

When the letter -c- is not represented by /k/, the only other possibility is /s/, as in receive. The letter combinations, such as -ch-, are also quite regular.

phonemically regular words - - words in which phoneme-grapheme correspondences have a high frequency of occurrence, as do words which conform to the three-rule statement above, are phonemically regular. Examples would be words like chin /čin/, rather /rǽðər/, plate /pleyt/, etc.

phonemically irregular words - - words like debt /det/ or here /hir/, in which a particular grapheme is represented by some phoneme only in that word or in a few words like it, are phonemically irregular. The -b- in debt is not pronounced and the -e consonant e pattern in here is represented by /i/ rather than /iy/.

decoding - - decoding is the process of changing a string of graphemes into a string of phonemes. This definition excludes other, more complex dimensions of reading, such as comprehension, which are not related to the change from one medium to another. Children who can look at Sally and produce /sǽliy/, because they have made a series of generalizations about the relationships between graphemes and phonemes, have decoded that word. Students who understand these relationships, whether consciously or not, have acquired the decoding skills, the first step in the more complex behavior called reading. Students who can read words by sight only, who have not generalized phoneme-grapheme correspondences and must depend on the Gestalt of the word, are not exhibiting an understanding of the decoding skills. At a more sophisticated level of decoding, children learn to attach some probabilities to phoneme-grapheme correspondences. For example, an unfamiliar word is tried first with the most likely pronunciation for each grapheme, which usually provides sufficient information to attempt a less likely correspondence. In attempting to read Nancy for the first time, using decoding skills, children might be inclined to respond: /nǽnkiy/, which would be rejected as non-English. The second most likely correspondence for -c-, the /s/, would result in a correct response.

dialect - - a dialect is a set of speech habits which are characteristic of a particular ethnic or regional group. Dialect is usually divided into three more specific categories: the phonemic structure used in an area; the syntactic structure used in an area; the vocabulary used in an area. For example, the word wash is pronounced /waš/ in some regions of the United States, but /warš/ in others. Some regional dialects report the time as "five to three," others as "five of three," and others as "five before three. String beans in one place are green beans in another. The dialect of an area or a group is the sum of those speech habits which characterize the speakers of the particular region or group.

standard English - - there is no single dialect in the United States which can be called a standard dialect, either in the sense of a dialect to be emulated or in the sense of a dialect which is shared by all speakers of American English. However, there are a large number of features which are more or less common to all speakers of our language. Most Americans distinguish between *roof* and *Ruth*, or between *feet* and *feed*. For some speakers, /a/ and /ɔ/ are allophonic; for others they are distinctive, as in *cot* and *caught*. But in general most speakers make use of the same number of phonemes and distribute them in approximately the same ways. It is this set of unstated agreements which defines standard English.

Negro dialect - - this regional-cultural dialect, distinctive in certain ways, can be defined by the features which it does not share with standard English. For example, there is greater *r*-loss in possessives and the plural copula (are) than in the standard English dialects.[1] This is not to say that speakers of the Negro dialect can not produce an /r/, but that in some contexts they normally do not. Speakers of the Negro dialect have no trouble in distinguishing and producing the difference between *tie* and *tire*, although most of them do not produce an /r/ in the sentence *they are sick*, which is spoken as /ðey sik/. The Negro dialect is defined by the features which it does not have in common with standard English.

LIMITATIONS

Several important limitations were placed upon the scope of this study. First, and most importantly, the object of the dialect lessons was to add certain features of standard English which either do not occur in the Negro dialect or which are distributed differently. There were no attempts in the lessons to replace the native dialect and no comparisons, which would inevitably be invidious, were made. The lessons were just another way of speaking, with no attempt to suggest when or where such a dialect might be used. If the subjects produced the target dialect during the lessons, they shared a language base with speakers of standard English. The criterion of measure was that they could use these features, even though they might not do so in normal speech situations.

Second, the dialect lessons were restricted to a few features which have been documented as typical of the Negro dialect in contrast with standard English and which should have some influence on the acquisition of reading skills. It is theoretically possible to identify and teach all of the features which diverge from standard English, but such an effort is of dubious value for two reasons: the rejection of the language-culture of the home, as suggested above; the inordinate time-cost involved.

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[1] Labov, *Some Sources of Reading Problems*, p. 9.

Third, the fact that most speakers of the Negro dialect say /hæᵊn/ for hand, a vowel which does not usually occur in standard English, was not considered, because this phoneme-grapheme correspondence is used consistently and it is phonemically distinctive; other consistent correspondences using non-standard phonemes were also ignored. The reduction of the final consonantal cluster is a much more important matter.

Fourth, this study was limited to the initial stages of reading since the decoding process might be a dimension of the relationship between dialect and learning to read. Reading is a complex form of human behavior, composed of a variety of related skills, many of which may not yet be defined. The purpose of this study was to identify one of those skills, in a particular population, and to demonstrate some of the ways in which it is related to the more general reading process..

DELIMITATIONS

The areas to be considered were delimited to phonological and related morphological or syntactic dimensions but not to lexical items. All utterances in standard English which use morphemic signals that do not occur in the Negro dialect could be included. The sentence, *they closed the gate*, is produced in standard English as:

/ðey klowzd ðə geyt/

but in the Negro dialect as:
/ðey klowz də geyᵊ/.

A syntactic difference which occurs in the phonological output of these two dialects is illustrated by the sentence, *this is my book*, produced in standard English as:

/ðisɨz máy buk/

but in the Negro dialect as:

/ðis biy máy buk/.

Lexical differences, whether caused by a failure to distinguish between items (*pen* used for *pencil*) or caused by regional-cultural differences (*supper* for *dinner*), were not considered.

CHAPTER TWO

RELATED RESEARCH

There is no experimental research and little speculation directly related to this research project in the professional literature. In order to provide some background of related articles which are relevant to the study undertaken here, the available information has been divided into the following five categories: phoneme-grapheme correspondence; disadvantaged children; substrata-factors; dialect; and language teaching. Generally, articles which do not report research findings are not discussed, although several of the better ones are cited in the bibliography.

Phoneme-grapheme correspondence

For a time, it appeared that linguistics would have a substantial impact on reading programs. That promise remains largely unfulfilled. The most significant contribution, to date, is the suggestion that phoneme-grapheme correspondence is an important dimension to be accounted for in the initial stages of a reading program.

Bloomfield pointed out that "To understand reading, one must understand *the relation of written (or printed) words to speech*."[2] Traditional methods of teaching reading do not fully recognize that words ". . . represent unit speech sounds, so that the way of writing each word bears a close relation to the speech sounds which make up that word . . . ."[3] He introduced a wide variety of exercises, carefully sequenced so that children are exposed to elements of variation one at a time. As a textbook, several features should be considered. First, he strongly opposed the use of pictures in the text, assuming that they intrude upon the reading process. This position may be argued from either point of view, as pictures can enhance or detract from the reading process. If pictures make books more attractive to children without interfering, there is little reason to exclude them. Second, many of the "words" he introduced are either parts of words or non-English. He included them because they can be part of longer words. But he ignored the fact that a sequence like *-mal* in a word like *animal* is normally pronounced /-məl/ as the vowel occurs in an unstressed position. Third, stories are delayed until very late in the book and practice sentences fail to develop interest in plot or character. Consequently, these materials lack the sources of motivation and attractiveness found in more traditional texts.

In his book *Sound and Spelling* in English, Hall presented two models of the reading process, the first a popular but inaccurate conception individually connecting phonology and graphology to meaning, the second showing that phonology is a mediating process between graphology and meaning.[4] Adult readers tend to sublimate the intermediate step, but children learning to read must be taught to connect writing to speech, speech to meaning. Hall explained the phonological and graphological systems of English with examples, then illustrated the range of graphemes which may be associated with any particular phoneme. In the final two chapters, he discussed the crucial area of phoneme-grapheme regularity and suggested a linguistic perspective for elementary language teachers: "Children's intelligent and logical mis-spellings, like munny for 'money' on the analogy of funny, call down fierce condemnations from the 'reading experts', and a child who mis-spells in this way will be told he is a 'bad speller' and a 'problem child'."[5] He concludes by identifying two different types of spelling errors: those which show control of phoneme-grapheme correspondence and those which are clearly wrong, such as adulds for adults.

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[2] Bloomfield, "Teaching children to read," p. 19.

[3] *Ibid*., p. 25.

Fries began his book with a history of reading teaching. Most interesting of the methods discussed is Farnham's "Sentence Method," developed on the thesis that since children find reading whole words more interesting than phonic studies of word parts, they will prefer reading entire sentences to single words.[6] In the second chapter Fries discussed the recent history of linguistics, and signalling systems of English in the third. Chapter four treats essentially the same material covered in the Hall text, but is a bit more thorough and technical. In the fifth chapter he contrasted phonics, phonetics and phonemics, one of the most widely misunderstood areas of linguistics and reading, and discussed the alphabet as one of a number of possible types of writing systems. The sixth chapter develops the history of English spelling and illustrates the most important phoneme-grapheme patterns. In the final chapter Fries suggested that reading be taught as a phoneme-grapheme problem-solving situation. Children might be given three words, bat, rat, and rag, which they are taught to read by sight. Once accomplished, they are required to infer from what is already known and read bag without further clues. By contrasting and building upon what is already known, children should be able to generalize about the relationships between English as it is spoken and as it is written.

The Fries book presents too much material not directly related to the process of learning to read. The historical and analytical information is important, but largely irrelevant to the teacher who simply wishes to

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4 Hall, Sound and Spelling in English, p. 5.

5 Ibid., p. 28.

6 Fries, Linguistics and Reading, p. 23.

teach reading more effectively. Like Bloomfield, Fries is a specialist in linguistics but not in reading.

Like others who have become interested in reading, Lefevre noted that children already have a firm command over the phonemes and structure of English before they enter school; consequently, ". . . primary reading and writing instruction should begin with developing their consciousness of phonemes in relation to the graphic system."[7] He felt that particular attention should be given to reading the intonation patterns of English. Although generally accurate, many of the specific statements and examples he cited are either inaccurate or distorted. For example, he said that "The apostrophe marking the genitive inflection in English writing is a pest and a nuisance."[8] Although English is no longer an inflected language, the genitive is one dimension of redundancy and the only way in which to resolve the ambiguity in a sentence like: The girl(')s mail leaves home every day.

The most scholarly exploration of phoneme-grapheme correspondence is Ruddell's Effect of Four Programs of Reading, which dealt with both dialect and phoneme-grapheme correspondence. One of the sub-samples he studied, "As indicated by the 1960 census report, . . . was located in the lowest income areas of the school district. . . ,"[9] an area of Oakland, California which has a high density Negro population. The report listed the results of his study by economic level, reporting specifically the data for word reading, word study skills, regular word identification and irregular word identification. The low socio-economic status group, using the McGraw-Hill materials, either with or without Ruddell's syntactic supplement, scored higher than the group using the basal readers in word reading and regular word identification, lower in word study skills and irregular word identification; only the data for regular word identification were statistically significant. This one area of significant difference might suggest a mapping by students who speak a non-standard English between dialect and regularly spelled words.

In summary, a number of writers who are interested in the process of reading have indicated that the study of relationships between letters and sounds is important and should have a place in the reading curriculum. Ruddell's research supports this position and gives rise to the possibility that Negro children who are learning to read may experience difficulty because the dialect they speak deviates from standard English.

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[7] Lefevre, Linguistics and the Teaching of Reading, p. 43.

[8] Ibid., p. 151.

[9] Ruddell, Effect of Four Programs of Reading, p. 24.

Disadvantaged children

Despite the considerable interest at this time in programs for disadvantaged children, there are few statements about their needs which are altogether reliable. Many writers have been willing to speculate about the ways in which disadvantaged children are disadvantaged and what programs should be developed to help them, but few have done research in this area..

The approach used by Bereiter and Engelmann has yet to be confirmed by experimental procedure. They have written that disadvantaged children ". . . must progress at a faster than normal rate if they are to catch up. The only issue open to question is what the nature of this faster-than-normal progress should be."[10] They added that the major deficiency shared by these children is language; the dialect they use deviates so substantially from standard English that it interferes with all academic learning, not solely the acquisition of reading skills. They have not said that disadvantaged children have no language; "The disadvantaged child masters a language that is adequate for maintaining social relationships and for meeting his social and material needs, but he does not learn how to use language for obtaining and transmitting information, for monitoring his own behavior, and for carrying on verbal reasoning. In short, he fails to master the cognitive uses of language, which are the uses that are of primary importance in school."[11] Time limitations forced Bereiter and Engelmann to focus on the three areas which, in their estimation, were most basic and would therefore produce the greatest benefit to the children in their subsequent academic studies. These areas were: language; arithmetic; and reading. In teaching language, "The basic teaching method is 'pattern drill,' similar to that used in the teaching of foreign languages. . . ,"[12] emphasizing logical language operations, such as and, or, if, or then.[13] Arithmetic was also taught as a language, but one which ". . . permits bolder inferences than everyday language does. . . ,"[14] a language which capitalizes on short term memory span and rote-learning tasks, two highly developed skills in disadvantaged children.[15]

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[10] Bereiter and Engelmann, Teaching Disadvantaged Children in the Preschool, pp. 6 - 7.

[11] Ibid., p. 42.

[12] Ibid., p. 138.

[13] Ibid., pp. 122 - 208.

[14] Ibid., p. 228.

[15] Ibid., p. 5.

In their discussion of teaching reading, Bereiter and Engelmann claimed that "The present reading program is based on two principles that have come to be generally accepted by linguistic analysts as fundamental to reading and which have been largely ignored in reading readiness programs. These are: (1) the importance of the word as the basic unit in reading, and (2) the importance of the alphabetic principle in English orthography."[16] However, they committed a number of basic errors. First, it is doubtful that any linguist would agree that the word is the "basic unit" in reading. Most linguists place emphasis on sound-letter correspondence. Second, Bereiter and Engelmann have confused reading, writing, and spelling, which though related, are different types of skills. Writing and spelling are production processes, whereas reading is a comprehension process. Third, in recommending the use of signs, ". . . each with the name of an object in the room printed on it and each provided with a bit of masking tape for affixing it to the appropriate object . . . ,"[17] such as *door*, *table*, or the parts of the body, they have contradicted the phoneme-grapheme correspondence principles they cite as the basis of their program. Fourth, they placed considerable emphasis on learning the names of the letters of the alphabet, an important skill for dictionary work and alphabetizing, but unnecessary for reading, as long as children are able to distinguish different letters. Fifth, they advocated placing letters in upside-down positions, on their sides, tipped, etc., but do not specify what the purpose of this questionable activity is.[18] Sixth, they have children identify words by the number of letters they contain.[19] At one point, they cite *rat* and *wall* (/ræt/ - - /wal/) as words with the same medial phonemes.[19]

Bereiter and Engelmann developed the methods discussed above because they felt the pre-school experiences of disadvantaged children did not provide them with an adequate background to compete with white, middle-class children. Two specific purposes which they hoped to achieve by using these techniques were: first, to orient disadvantaged children to a program of instruction which forces them to attend to the lessons; second, to provide the language skills which they stated are necessary to the cognitive development of these children.

One of the few experimental studies to examine the acquisition of language is Loban's longitudinal research. Many of his findings bear directly on the hypotheses tested in this study. He has described a number of differences between the Negro dialect and standard English. One of these is the copula. Typical sentences in Negro speech were: *He happy*; *that girl my friend*.[20] Also he found that "The low group uses the least amount of grammatical complexity (as measured by embedding), although all groups show an increase in grammatical complexity as chronological age increases."[21] In order of frequency, the dialect of Negro first-graders varies from the standard dialect most in: omission of the auxiliary verb; 3rd person present singular subject-verb agreement; verb forms; subject-verb agreement with *to be*; tense inconsistency; pronoun form; nonstandard noun forms; double negatives and possessive pronoun problems.[22]

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[16] Bereiter and Engelmann, *op. cit.*, p. 274.

[17] *Ibid.*, p. 279.

[18] *Ibid.*, p. 284.

[19] *Ibid.*, p. 287.

Unfortunately, Loban places little emphasis on phonology, one of the main areas of dialect. Most speakers of the Negro dialect use / ks/ for *ask*, just as some speakers of standard English say /childərn/ for *children*, or /ríylətɨr/ for *realtor*. Loban summarized the speech problems of Negroes by saying that ". . . the Negro group seems to be expending much of its energy *in overcoming problems the Caucasian subjects never encounter*."[23]

In her study of children in Mexico, Modiano[24] reported that children who do not speak standard Mexican learn to read and speak Mexican better when they are first taught to read in their own language. Further, she has written that untrained teachers who speak the language being used for reading instruction achieve superior results than do trained teachers, because the former group is more sympathetic and understanding. As a result of this experience, she has suggested that Negro children in the United States might be taught to read more effectively if they were taught by local Negro adults and if they were taught to read from materials in their own dialect. She also has suggested that the stories should be written about the kind of life and conditions which are familiar to Negro children. She concluded that those who describe disadvantaged children as unable to think have failed to perceive that Negro children use a language which is adequate and appropriate to their lives.

Martin Deutsch wrote that "It is common in the first grade for a teacher to talk to the class for a period of ten minutes or so. Yet very often these children have never before experienced a ten-minute-long speech sequence coming from an adult to a child."[25] He fails, however,

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[20] Loban, *Language Ability*, p. 70.

[21] *Ibid*., p. 52.

[22] *Ibid*., p. 65.

[23] *Ibid*., p. 78.

[24] Modiano, "Language of instruction for beginning reading."

[25] Deutsch, "Early social environment," p. 19

to explain how such media as radio and television, which frequently have long segments of speech, are different from the teacher-to-student classroom situation. In either instance, the child must listen and comprehend. Much of the information he presents seems reasonable, but it is not supported by experimental evidence.

In summary, most writers in this field would seem to agree that there is need for special programs which are designed for the specific requirements of disadvantaged children. What those special requirements are, how they can best be met, and what types of materials should be used are questions still to be answered.

Substrata-factors

The substrata-factor theory, developed by Holmes[26] is a method of accounting for specific tasks underlying the reading process. If this theory helps to identify skills which must, in some sequential order, preceed the reading process, it will have provided elementary reading instruction with an important and powerful tool. However, the studies which have so far been undertaken either do not deal with the initial processes of the beginning reader or they are not experimental in nature. Speculation is valuable in suggesting possible experiments, but it can not replace them. Until the time that substrata-factors in primary reading are studied directly under experimental conditions which provide for the manipulation of variables, the theory must remain an interesting possibility.

Singer's study of grades 3 through 6 identified several factors which seem to be sequentially related to speed and power of reading. Reading speed variance was accounted for by "recognition of affixes and roots," "phonics," "meaning of affixes" and "visual verbal meaning."[27] From 47% to 73% of the reading power variance in different grades was accounted for by "syllabification," "visual verbal conceptualization," "word recognition in context" and "visual verbal meaning." As these factors are directly related to the problem of code-breaking, children whose dialect interferes with these processes would find it difficult to connect graphemes and phonemes. The impact of linguistics on reading may provide advocates of the substrata-factor theory with new and better test instruments to measure these factors and to examine the ways in which they are related.

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[26] Holmes, Substrata Factor Theory.

[27] Singer, Substrata-factor Reorganization, pp. 8 - 12.

Dialect

Until recently, linguists whose specialization is dialect have not directly studied the features of Negro speech. There have been, from time to time, occasional articles on this topic, but most of them were inaccurate. The articles reported here are the initial steps in a full description of the Negro dialect.

McDavid has pointed out that ". . . some of the practices of some subcultural subdialects may be sharply at variance with the normal practices of a speaker."[28] More relevant to the reading process, he suggested that "It is likely that teaching some form of standard English to Negroes will be necessary; and it might be easier to start this second language in the kindergartens or earlier, and use this as the vehicle of reading, and hence of introduction to the values of the dominant culture."[29]

In a later article, McDavid listed twenty-six features to be used by teachers as a checklist for determining the major dialect of the area in which they teach and the degree of deviation that occurs in any sub-dialects, particularly Southern Negro. This list is not inclusive and does not differentiate between more important and less important items. For example, the eleventh item deals with the substitution of _them_ for _those_ in expressions like _them books_. This substitution is not as important as subject-verb concord with the verb _to be_, or the deletion of the noun plural morpheme.[30] A more serious problem is that few elementary teachers are sufficiently trained in linguistics to treat language objectively. The main distinction between a linguist and a non-linguist is not so much the greater number of facts about language known by the former, but the linguist's attitudes toward examining language as it _is_ used rather than how it _might be_ used or _should be_ used.[31]

Perhaps the most important and exciting work done on the Negro dialect is presently in progress by William Labov and his associates at Columbia University. They are attempting to define the ways in which the Negro dialect deviates from the standard English dialects, using a variety of techniques which have been developed by Labov for this purpose. Although a full description is yet to be completed, there is sufficient data to use in developing materials while the research continues. Labov has found that the following features are characteristic of Negro speech:

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[28] McDavid, "Dialectology and the teaching of reading," p. 206.

[29] _Ibid_., p. 211.

[30] McDavid, "A checklist," p. 9.

[31] Reed, "Usage in four perspectives."

1) failure to distinguish between the /e/ and /i/ phonemes;
2) deletion of -*r*, creating homonymic pairs such as *guard* and *god*;
3) deletion of -*l*, creating homonymic pairs such as *tool* and *too*;
4) reduction of consonant clusters, creating homonymic pairs such as *hold* and *hole*;
5) deletion of terminal consonants, creating homonymic pairs such as *six* and *sick*;
6) merging of /ð/ and /f/, metathesis, and other less intrusive phenomena.[32]

Some of these deletions and reductions are extremely important because of the place they occupy within sentences. For example, the *r*-loss affects the plural copula, producing such non-standard sentences as: *they coming later*; it also causes the personal pronoun *they* to be merged with the possessive form *their*. The deletion of -*l* affects the future marker. The reduction and deletion of terminal consonants causes the past tense, formed by adding either /-d/, /-t/, or /ɨd/, to be phonologically indistinct from non-past meanings. Labov's research has been particularly useful in providing a framework for developing materials in this project.

Language teaching

Stevick has given a number of general principles for teaching students a foreign language. Those listed below are also relevant to teaching a dialect:

1) "Give them a reliable model to imitate.
2) Keep your students from becoming confused.
3) Don't even try to answer questions that begin with the word 'why.'
4) Stick close to the sentence or sentences that are causing the problem.
5) Help your students stay interested.
6) Be careful how you correct students' mistakes. Don't ridicule them."[33]

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[32] Labov, *Some Sources of Reading Problems*.

[33] Stevick, *Helping People Learn English*, pp. 18 - 22.

In addition to these general rules, the following advice about teaching accurate pronunciation has been given:

1) "Start early." Postponement reinforces bad habits.
2) "Start big." The most serious errors should be attacked first, the less important ones later.
3) "Be consistent. . . . Hold consistently to one standard during pronunciation periods, to another standard at other times."
4) "Spread your work." Several periods of short practice produce better results than a few periods of intensive practice. Two minutes every day is more effective than fifteen minutes once a week.
5) "Teach in terms of contrasts." Students can identify and produce differences more quickly when a word they can produce is contrasted with a word they can not produce.[34]

He has made the following suggestion about working with young children: "Children, more than anyone else, need lessons that don't require them to work in terms of long-range goals. That is, the lessons must be fun in themselves, and they must be close to the children's own experience and interests."[35]

Lado has stressed principles which will make language production habitual. He listed the following generalizations which are relevant to teaching a dialect:

1) " Speech has to be imitated. Poor models produce poor imitations.
2) Establish the patterns as habits through pattern practice.
3) . . . minimal contrasts to focus sharply on the phonemic differences eventually result in satisfactory responses, . . .
4) The problems often require conscious understanding and massive practice, while the structurally analogous units between languages dialects, in this case need not be taught . . . .
5) Add each new element or pattern to previous ones.
6) Teach the language dialect as it is, not as it ought to be.
7) The student must be engaged in practice most of the learning time.

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[34] Stevick, _op_. _cit_., pp. 42 - 45.

[35] _Ibid_., p. 78.

8) Let the student know immediately when his response has been successful.
9) Primary school children require more special techniques. They learn by play and memorization."[36]

He has augmented these general principles with a number of drill types which could be used with elementary children. Examples which are applicable to this study have been added to illustrate the drills:

1) Repetition drill: This is a book.
2) Substitution drill:
   These're _____. (books, hands, roses, etc.)
3) Substitution drill with changes:
   The sentence pattern being drilled is the same as the one above. The teacher holds up one or more books, hands, or roses as the cue. These three words could be used to generate six possible sentences, three singular and three plural.
4) Transformation drill: Two cue sentences are given. The students must respond by embedding the second pattern within the first. Cue: The book is in this room. It is red. Response: The red book is in this room.[37]

For more advanced groups, two of these drills might be combined. The transformation and simple substitution drills could be used together, with the teacher holding up objects as the cue. Any one of these drills could also be used as a test of performance. The purpose of these exercises is to drill students in using the present tense form of the copula with the appropriate number concord.

Language is an unconscious habit; when we speak, we concentrate more on what we are going to say, less on how we are going to say it. Drills which call attention to the point being taught are self-defeating, for students must learn to make the correct response automatically, without thinking about the feature they are learning. As Lado noted: "Pattern practice is rapid oral drill on problem patterns with attention on something other than the problem itself."[38]

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[36] Lado, Language Teaching, pp. 49 - 60.

[37] Ibid., pp. 96 - 101.

[38] Ibid., p. 105.

In discussing testing techniques, Lado described the following methods (the examples are derived from the drills above):

1) same-different: Children are asked to say if the bound plural morphemes attached to the subject are the same or if they are different:

    /ðə bûks hir/ (The book's here.)

    /ðə bûksər hir/ (The books're here.)

   (In actual practice, children would be asked to respond with either "one" or "several.")
2) Production: Each child is asked to give the correct response. An effective method for doing this is to give the pattern and the cue, then call on a child. In this way, no one knows when he will be called upon. If the pattern being tested were: "This (These) is (are) _____ (s)," the teacher could hold up one or more of the objects, then ask a particular student to respond.
3) Fill-in: Each child is required to supply the appropriate form of the copula as the teacher holds up objects:

    This book _____ red.

    These books _____ red.[39]

In designing and using the materials for this study, the following general concepts are listed in their order of importance and regarded as essential in this experiment:

1) A standard English dialect is to supplement, not replace, the children's dialect;
2) The dialect must be taught, not talked about;
3) The teacher should teach the dialect he speaks;
4) The materials must be sequential;
5) Phonology should take precedence over syntax and vocabulary.

First, in presenting the lessons to his class, the teacher must understand that the standard dialect is "school talk," an artificial dialect which might be encouraged in the classroom and at school, but not at home. Invidious comparisons between "school talk" and "home talk" would only produce needless confusion and frustration for the children. Technical descriptions of differences between dialects would not be understood or fruitful; it is the language behavior of the children which is being manipulated, not their conceptual grasp of the phenomena of language.

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[39] Lado, op. cit., pp. 165 - 167.

Second, the habitual nature of language requires that it be practiced. There is little point in being able to make statements about a dialect, whether accurate or not, if children are not able to use that dialect. If -th is only a voiced or voiceless pulmonary egressive interdental fricative (no matter how explained) and not either /ð/ or /θ/, then the children have learned nothing useful. It doesn't matter if they know how to describe a sound they can not produce in the appropriate context. The best way to keep all students learning as much as possible is by using choral drills.

Third, the dialect of the teacher is of little consequence as long as it is a standard dialect. It would be ideal if he were a speaker of the California dialect, but this is not essential. However, it is essential that he teach the dialect he speaks, and not the dialect he thinks he speaks or wishes he spoke. Statements like /ðis # iz # may # bûk/ are not normal English.

Fourth, the items to be taught must be carefully chosen and sequenced. Some kinds of deviations are more important than others, and should be taught first.

Finally, the limits of this experiment precluded the possibility of attempting to deal with all facets of dialect. Since the study is designed to measure the effect of standard dialect acquisition on learning to read, the most important aspect of dialect will necessarily have to treat phonology more completely than morphology, structure, or vocabulary.

Summary of related research

Despite the fact that none of these scholars has attempted to demonstrate a relationship between dialect and reading, the work they have done is extremely valuable to both the present research and to the more general field of knowledge about human language behavior. Without the benefit of their work, this project would not have been possible.

RATIONALE

Although there are some variations in strategy, the traditional pattern for initial reading instruction begins with the teaching of from fifty to one hundred sight words. Once these have been introduced, most basal readers then begin a series of phonics lessons. These lessons normally make use of drills using the same initial, medial, and final sounds, rhyming words, etc. The stories in materials of this sort use controlled vocabularies, in which words are repeated many times, but with no attempt to control the relationship between phonemes and graphemes. In a typical basal reader, such as the Ginn second Pre-Primer, we find the -a- grapheme associated with the following phonemes:

/a/ balls, want, Father

/ey/ cake, a

/æ/ and, can, apples, fast.

As there is no attempt to sequence these correspondences or to suggest that there is any greater likelihood of one correspondence than another, children lack any basis on which to choose one sound in preference to another. Words with "silent" letters or uncommon combinations, such as the -ai- in again /e/, are introduced immediately.

The process of learning to read involves associating the graphemes children see on a page with the phonemes they use daily. Put differently, all normal five year olds know what a cat is and have learned to associate phonemic /kæt/ with the object. Speech, then, operates as a mediating process between the reality which is familiar to children and the written symbols which index that reality. If teachers attempt to go directly from reading to meaning, without involving this intermediate step, they are making the process more complex because they are ignoring an already well-established competence. The letters of the alphabet, despite their less than perfect correlation with the phonemes of English, serve as an important mnemonic device in recalling (used in its most literal sense) the word to mind, so that it can be interpreted within the context where it occurs. There are, to be sure, other clues to meaning, perhaps equally important; but this chaining process, which links graphemes to phonemes, phonemes to referent, is an essential step in the reading process.[40]

Despite the anomalous correspondences which do occur in English, there is nothing which approximates the complexity of learning to read an Oriental language. Speakers of English use a fixed number of phonemes which they apply more or less consistently to a limited number of graphemes. Most speakers of English would, with a nonsense word like bundiferous, produce nearly identical pronunciations. Those differences which occur are largely the result of regional variation. Any irregular correspondence, such as the -c- in receive, is of no great consequence as long as it is consistent in the way it deviates, and does not interfere with communication.

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[40] Hall, Sound and Spelling in English.

To summarize what has been said thus far, all normal speakers of English use approximately the same number of phonemes, although they may distribute them slightly differently because of the habits in the region where they live. In some parts of the United States, a member of the group being studied in this project is called a /níygrow/; in other areas, the normal pronunciation is /nígrow/. These differences in dialect do occasionally cause minor interruptions in the flow of communication, as when two members of different speech communities come together; because each of them is consistent in using the phonemes he does, even though one might produce Mary-merry-marry as homonyms where the other treats each one differently, they quickly learn to understand one another because they speak the same language.

Children learning to read, even though they may speak slightly different dialects, encounter approximately the same problems in learning to read, other variables being equal. The reason for this is clear enough; they begin with dialects which are essentially the same, and which are mutually intelligible. In producing an utterance with some specified meaning, such as these are their pens, we expect to find each speaker using approximately the same number of phonemes distributed in approximately the same way. Whatever variations might occur would be slight and of little significance. For most speakers of English, such a sentence would be transcribed:

/ðiyzər ðer penz/

In a Negro dialect, however, this utterance is considerably different, as it contains a number of elements which typify the type and degree of divergence of that dialect from standard English. Compare the transcription above to the following, which fairly represents the same utterance in Negro speech:

/ðiyz biy dey pe$^{<n}$/

The following variations occur. First, there is considerable falling together of the /ð/ and /d/ phonemes. Both occur in this dialect, but they seem to occur in free variation. Second, the plural copula of to be, usually affixed to the previous nominal as a schwa and r-sound, occurs as be in the surface structure. Third, possessive pronouns with an /-r/ usually occur without this final member, causing your and their to become /uyw/ and /ðey/, especially when the following word begins with a consonant. The loss of this feature also occurs in prevocalic positions, but less frequently. Fourth, there is considerable falling together of /e/ and /i/, making it impossible to distinguish such common minimal pairs as /pin/ and /pen/. And fifth, there is a marked tendency to reduce or delete consonantal members at the end of words. This seems especially true when the consonant occurs in a word at the end of a sentence, as in the example above. Pen might also be heard without nasalization, with a schwa in place of the -n, as: /pe^{ə}/.

So far the discussion has examined these differences on the phonological level. However, it is clear that these differences affect both the morphemic and syntactic structure of Negro speech. In transcription, there is no distinction between you need this key and you'll need this key. In those instances where the future modal is attached as a bound morpheme to the previous member of the noun structure, it is attached as a null element, which means that speakers of this dialect are actually operating with fewer morphological signals. Speakers of this dialect can make such a distinction, but they do not. Syntactically, a similar process occurs.

It is clear that phonology, morphology and syntax represent a division of elements which is not discrete. The deviations which occur in the Negro dialect occur in all three dimensions. For example, modal will can be treated as a phonological problem, where the aim of instruction is to add /-əl/ to the speech output. It can be argued that this is a morphological element, as it is a unit of meaning; or, some might prefer to treat it as a structural item, signalling the future tense.

As speakers of the Negro dialect, these elementary children have speech patterns which differ from those of other children in two important ways: first, they delete a number of phonemes which are crucial in signalling the underlying structure, as in the case of modal will; second, a number of consonantal clusters are reduced, as in the case of tent or bald. Even though these children have the same number of phonemes in their repetoire as speakers of other dialects, the sounds are distributed in such a way that fewer phonological features are being used to signal the underlying semantic content.

Children who are learning to read using a standard dialect learn to attach some probabilities to phoneme-grapheme correspondences. As they do this, they open up greater possibilities for using context clues to unlock meaning. But the first step, decoding, is crucial to the second. The following abbreviated outline suggests the sort of inferences which need to be made:

unstressed a	stressed a	a + cons. + e
/ə/ again	/æ/ bat	/ey/ rate
/ɨ/ and	/a/ far	etc.
etc.	etc.	

consonantal b
/b/ bag
etc.

consonantal c

/k/ cat

/s/ decide

etc.

consonantal ch

/č/ chat

/k/ school

etc.

Most consonants are represented by one phoneme rather consistently, and by a second phoneme in almost all other cases. The vowels are slightly more complicated, as each of them can be associated with at least five phonemes. Even so, their behavior is far from chaotic.

For speakers of the Negro dialect, these correspondences are more complex, for they must learn to make the associations described above in a dialect which begins with fewer phonological contrasts. Stated differently, Negro children can be less certain about phoneme-grapheme correspondences because many of the phonemes in standard English are allophones in their dialect. The following pairs are typical non-distinctive groups:

roof - - Ruth

poor - - Poe

them - - /dem/ (in some contexts)

Using only these few reductions, Ford could be pronounced /θow/ or /fowr/ or /fowrð/ or /fowrd/. Because of the large number of phoneme-grapheme correspondences which exist between the Negro dialect and writing, children who are learning to read have no basis on which to assign a particular phoneme to a grapheme. Because of the dialect they speak, the graphemes of English and the phonemes of their dialect would seem to be operating in free variation. As they attempt to read a word, they are unable to count upon the consistency of phoneme and grapheme which can be used by speakers of standard English. Negro children are largely unable to decode because their dialect is a less perfect fit to our writing system than standard English is.

While it is theoretically possible to construct reading materials for the Negro dialect, such a proposal seems unacceptable. The Negro dialect and standard English are not two different languages, but mutually intelligible dialects of the same language. Also, such specialized materials would inevitably tend to further isolate and separate speakers of this dialect. The alternative course was chosen in this research project. The subjects were given special training in standard English.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODS

Ideally, a researcher begins by establishing the design of his study and then carefully chooses the conditions which will fit into the general design. Practically, he is then faced with the problem of altering his design so that it will be acceptable to the schools and teachers who are cooperating with him. That resulting compromise is not necessarily detrimental to the research project. In this chapter, the modified research methods will be discussed in detail.

Selection of subjects

The Oakland, California school system was selected for this study because Oakland is a large city with a variety of representative schools and because it was conveniently located. The schools which would have provided the most representative speakers of the Negro dialect could not be used, as they had continuing programs which could not be disturbed by the addition of this project. When these schools were deleted from the possibilities, only three inner-city schools remained, one with three first grades and the others with two each. Because the study requires some physical shifting of students, it was clearly necessary to choose one of these three schools for the research, as opposed to two classes from any combination of the three schools. The school with the three first grades was chosen.

It is necessary, at this point, to note that a study of this sort is sensitive to the feelings of people. During the pilot testing, one teacher, who had cooperated in administering an early form of the dialect test, refused to allow any further work when her question about the purpose of the study was answered. Reassurances by the experimenter and the principal were of no consequence, and, even though she was given a thorough explanation of the purposes of the project and agreed it was worthwhile, she refused further assistance. Considerations of this sort were important in other decisions made about the methodology used in this study. It would have been best to randomly select the two participating teachers from the group of three first grade teachers. However, it was administratively decided that two particular teachers would be more suitable to the purposes of the study than the third. The possibility of randomly assigning one teacher as control, the other as experimental teacher was also pre-empted, again for the sorts of reasons discussed above.

Wherever possible, assignments were made randomly. The administrator in charge was asked about the methods used to assign children to each of the three classrooms. This particular school is somewhat different from most elementary schools in that it cooperates with a day school, which receives about one-half of the preschool children who will enter kindergarten when they are older. These children were sectioned into each of the three classes in random order; no attempt was made to group them in any way. Similarly, children who registered without day school experience were also programmed into each of the three classes randomly. It is therefore reasonable to assume that each of the classes was statistically similar.

Test and materials development

The present dialect test, written to measure differences in dialect between speakers of standard English dialect and speakers of Negro dialects, is the third major version. The first dialect test was composed of a number of contrastive and non-contrastive pairs, such as: k - cake; k - k; cake - cake. For each of the approximately forty pairs in that test, the students were to mark a line through either S-S for the same, or D-s for different on their answer sheets. Another section of the test was intended to measure comprehension. It was composed of a series of illustrations, colored boxes of various sizes and shapes, described by accompanying statements:

The red box is longer than the blue box;

The green box is on top of the white box;

etc.

The students were expected to respond by marking T for the true statements, F for the false. Because a variety of language skills were being tested, the test was composed of a number of other sections, each with a new set of directions. There were two major flaws in this test: first, the skills which were required to understand and answer the questions were well beyond what can be expected of first-grade children; second, and more importantly, although the items chosen were not bad in themselves, they covered such a variety of linguistic skills, some crucial and some relatively trivial, that meaningful data could not result from the test. A few items were selected from this test and then it was totally revised.

The second dialect test was composed of a series of randomly presented pictures which illustrated items that were phonologically contrastive, such as: tie - tire; ball - bald; pie - pipe; 10 - tent; etc. This was an individual test, requiring that each child sit down with the booklet of pictures, look at each page and name the items which he saw there. A descriptive sentence accompanied each picture, in order to increase the probability that students would be able to identify the correct name; the phonological value of the word was the important element. For the above answers, the following questions were asked:

1) This man is wearing a neck _____.

2) This car has a _____.
3) That is a base _____.
4) This man doesn't have any hair; he is _____.
5) The child in the picture is eating a piece of _____.
6) A man is smoking his _____.
7) That is the number _____.
8) People who go camping sleep in a _____.

A number of interesting results occurred. It was impossible to control the answers. A frequent answer to number (2) was wheel; number (4) stimulated one child to respond: We call him soup-bowl; number (5) fairly consistently produced cake; people who camp apparently sleep in hotels; the letters which were used from the alphabet resulted in confused responses, as most children did not know the alphabet. Also, the missing words in the cue sentences were all in the final position, which doubtless affected the way they were pronounced. As important as these problems were, however, an even greater issue was becoming apparent, and this type of test could not be adapted to correct for it: language produced in isolation, as in this test, is not equivalent to the production habits which are used in connected speech. This seems to be true for all speakers. Children could and did produce many of the features in the test which they would not produce in ordinary discourse. These deficiencies led to the revision which was used for this research project.

The dialect test included in Appendix A is an improvement over the previous attempts in two important ways: first, it measures language as it is used; second, it is based on the research of Labov, and is restricted to a number of speech habits which are different in the Negro dialect. Although this test is superior to either of the previous forms, it is not ideal. The test is extremely difficult to score, as each sentence must be listened to over and over until the type of error which was made can be described: deletion, distortion, or addition. Even when it is clear that one of these categories is applicable, it is often difficult to ascertain how extensive the error is, for that requires knowing exactly what the students had in mind as they responded. Another deficiency of this test is that is does not present clear and contrastive items which can be compared. There is not, for example, a pair of sentences which differ only in that one of them uses modal will and the other does not. Significant differences may be masked by the combination scores reported for the dialect test. Contrasts should be built into the next test. Finally, there seems to be no reason to avoid constructing a test which measures the exact features which are being taught in the dialect lessons, parallel to the materials the subjects are being taught to read from. It is clear that there is considerable work to be done just in test construction.

If the dialect test is accurately measuring the behavior of the students in the two groups, the pretest and posttest scores should, in general, form a normally distributed curve. The scores illustrated by the pretest histogram would indicate this, although the upper end, representing students who did poorly on the dialect test, is slightly skewed. However, most of the data forms a fairly normal distribution, even with only fifty three subjects. The posttest histogram curve is not as normal. There are several places where the curve deviates from

FIGURE 1

Histogram of pretest error scores on

Rystrom's Dialect Deviation Test

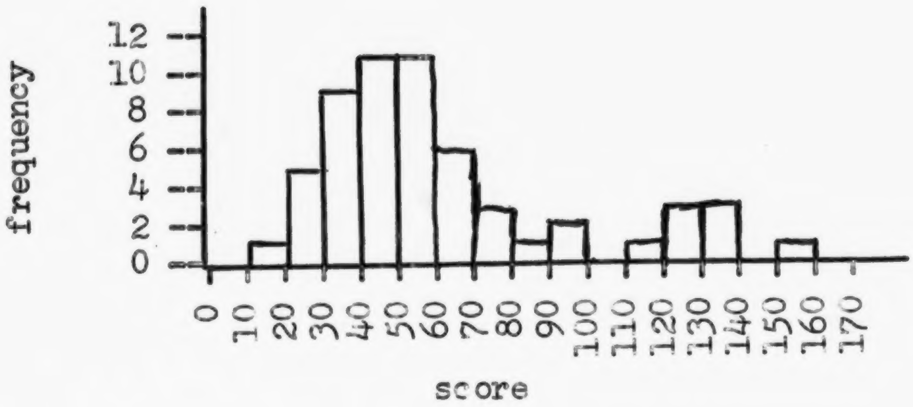
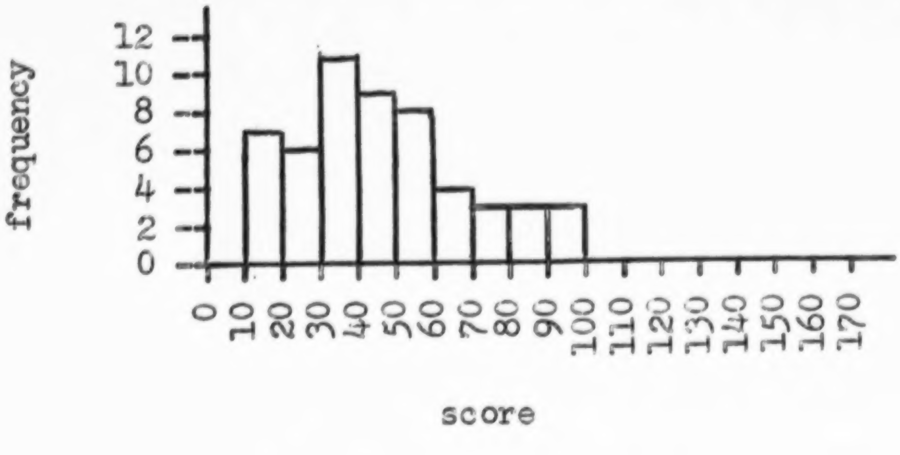


FIGURE 2

Histogram of posttest error scores on

Rystrom's Dialect Deviation Test



the bell shape, the curve levelling off sharply at the upper end. The children at this upper end come from both the experimental and control groups, in about equal numbers.

The reliability of the dialect test was also measured by doing an odd-even correlation on the pretest and posttest scores for each group. The odd-even correlation scores raised another question, about the relationship of each person to the group. In order to examine this, a Spearman rank correlation was done on the posttest data, as illustrated in Figure 3. The correlation for the total group is lower than the correlation for either of the treatment groups, as anticipated.

TABLE 1

Rystrom's Dialect Deviation Test

Odd-even correlation scores

Teacher	Pretest	Posttest
H	.58	.63
B	.80	.68

FIGURE 3

Spearman rank correlations on

Rystrom's Dialect Deviation Test

Total groups	Experimental groups	Control groups
.69	.79	.92

We would expect that the groups which share experiences would be more similar than the combined scores for two different groups, and that these similarities would be illustrated by their test performance.

It seems reasonable to conclude that the dialect test is an adequate measure of dialect deviation. Its main weaknesses are difficulty of administration, problems in scoring, the lack of clearly contrastive elements, and the lack of correlation with the dialect materials.

Since the treatment period was but eight weeks, only a few items were selected for the dialect lessons, and these taught as thoroughly as possible. Such a strategy should produce more apparent results. The following five lessons were constructed:

Lesson 1 - - modal will

Lesson 2 - - terminal deletions

Lesson 3 - - the singular copula and the /i/e/ distinction

Lesson 4 - - reduced consonantal clusters

Lesson 5 - - the plural copula and possessive pronouns.

All of the items in the list above, with the exception of the /i/e/ distinction and the possessive pronouns, involve alterations which occur at the end of morphemes. Stated differently, many of the deviations between standard English and Negro dialects occur in the suffixes attached to words. In order that each of the items listed above would be included in a variety of contexts, the types of words to which they might be suffixed were divided into the usual phonological categories: bilabials; labiodentals; interdentals; alveolars; alveopalatals; and velars. Glottals were not included, as the only member, /h/, does not usually occur at the end of a word.

To the extent that it was possible, each group of consonants in every lesson has suffixed to it the grammatical feature being stressed in that lesson. In Lesson III, section 3.8 (see Appendix B), it will be noted that the following words are used before the suffixed singular copula:

ship	voiceless bilabial stop
laugh	voiceless labiodental fricative
cloth	voiceless interdental fricative
cut	voiceless alveolar stop
book	voiceless velar stop
class	voiceless alveolar fricative

nose	voiced alveolar fricative
branch	voiceless alveopalatal stop
dish	voiceless alveopalatal fricative
bridge	voiced alveolar-palatal stop.

Not every possibility has been included, as that would have resulted in more material than could be covered. However, this sample does provide at least one member from each of the possible categories. In addition, words which end in vowel phonemes were also included. Note in secion 3.6 of the same lesson the following words which require the singular copula as an affix:

money	high front
day	higher mid front
eye	low front
window	higher mid back
boy	diphthong
glue	high back

In addition to these, the -r glide was included when possible, as in the case of the word answer, also from this lesson.

Each lesson is composed of the following components: a brief dialog in which the items to be emphasized in that lesson occur in a variety of contexts; a contrastive phonological drill to be used for production; a series of substitution or transformation drills. Another type of drill was used, which gave the children some experience in practicing the drill material while generating sentences of their own. These acted as a transitional step between drill language and the children's natural language.

Procedures for testing and scoring

The following tests were used as both pretests and posttests: Rystrom's Dialect Deviation Test; Gates Word Pronunciation Test; Fry's Phonetically Regular Words Oral Reading Test (these are included in Appendix A). Each test was administered individually, over a week's time. The first reading test was given to the entire group before the second reading test was begun. The dialect test was administered separately by a different tester during the pretest period. The reading tests were scored by counting the number of words read correctly.

These two reading tests were chosen because they depend solely on the ability of children to read the items, without context or picture clues. Children must either know the items by sight or be able to decode them. Although no attempt was made to measure this, it was evident which method was being used by each child. Responses were either immediate, indicating a word read by sight, or sounded out, indicating the presence of decoding skills; or, there was no response. It is unfortunate that no record was kept of those children who were attempting to sound out the words which were being decoded. This might have added an interesting dimension to this study. In several cases, children failed to understand the directions, despite several attempts to direct them, and counted the numbers in the left margin instead of reading.

The procedure for administering the dialect test was as follows: when the subject entered the room, the tester turned on tape recorder number two, which was used only to record. He then said the name of the student being tested, so that the name would be on the tape just before that subject's responses. Then he turned on tape recorder number one, which operated only as a playback tape recorder. Tape recorder number one had both the directions for the dialect test and the test itself. It began, "I'm going to tell you some sentences. I want you to repeat each one _after_ me, as I say it." After a brief pause, the first sentence was given. "My arm felt good," followed by a pause which lasted about one and one-half to two times as long as the time taken to say the sentence. The child was to repeat the sentence during this blank interval. Then the second sentence was presented, followed by another pause, the third, etc. Each sentence contained between twelve and twenty five phonemes, covering such items as terminal consonantal reductions and deletions, modal _will_, the singular and plural copula, and past tense morphemes. When the subject had repeated the final response, both tape recorders were turned off, the student was sent back to his room, and a new subject was brought in.

During the test itself, each subject was allowed to respond as he wished, and could repeat words, phrases, or the entire sentence until he was satisfied with it; however, he had only the amount of time which was blank on the master tape. A number of children, particularly during the posttest, repeated small portions of the tape which they had originally distorted in one way or another. The last response made by each child was the one which was analyzed and scored. Thus, if a child produced the word _horse_ three times in the sentence _this horse'llfall down_, the final attempt was scored; without exception, the final attempt was superior to the previous ones where multiple responses were attempted.

The dialect test was scored in the following manner. Each response was carefully listened to a number of times, until it was possible to reproduce the response as it occurred on the tape. At that point, a phonemic transcription was marked, indicating which sounds were omitted, which were deleted, and what sounds were added. As anticipated, this is also the order of frequency in which these error types occurred. The number of errors of each type was then added together to give a total error score on the dialect test for that child. When each test had been scored, the complete set of dialect tests was then rescored on unmarked pages and the two sets for each child compared, in order to be certain that the scoring was accurate. When a conflict arose, it was either resolved by the scorer, where possible, or by an outside person who was asked to interpret when the scorer could not choose between two alternatives. This problem occurred in fewer than ten cases, and most of them were the result of sound interference by bells, etc.

Treatment procedures

Both project teachers were adamant in insisting that no changes be made in their reading program, as they felt they were just beginning to make some progress with their students and did not want to jeopardize this by splitting their reading groups or changing texts. Consequently, it was necessary to adjust the research design to fit these conditions. Each teacher's class was split in half so that Teacher H's room would contain half of her students and half of Teacher B's students for the dialect training, to be given during a time not devoted to reading. The control group met in Teacher B's classroom during this same time. In that way, the reading times and groups were left intact.

In order to divide them, the children in each class were listed in alphabetical order and given a number representing their position in this list: the first student was number one, the second number two, etc. Then a random number table was used to assign the children a new, but random number. The students in each class were split into two groups, those with an odd number and those with an even number, producing the following four groups: Teacher B - odd numbers; Teacher B - even numbers; Teacher H - odd numbers; Teacher H - even numbers. By tossing a coin, half of Teacher B's group was joined to half of Teacher H's group. This group received the dialect training (experimental group), and the remaining students received the placebo (control group). Schematically, the design is illustrated by Figure 4.

FIGURE 4

Daily language schedule

Time	Teacher B's room	Teacher H's room
9 a.m.	B's morning readers	H's morning readers
1 p.m.	placebo 1/2 B's readers 1/2 H's readers	dialect training 1/2 H's readers 1/2 B's readers
2 p.m.	B's afternoon readers	H's afternoon readers

Administratively, the split-half reading plan is worked out by each teacher. As she identifies the level of the pupils in her room, she divides the group into poor readers, who have their lesson in the morning, and good readers, who have their lesson in the afternoon. As anticipated, the random division of each teacher's group also produced a random division of morning and afternoon readers in each of the treatment groups.

FIGURE 5

Distribution of students in each cell

	Teacher B	Teacher H
Experimental group	7 morning students 7 afternoon students	7 morning students 7 afternoon students
Control group	9 morning students 5 afternoon students	7 morning students 7 afternoon students

Pattern practice drills require four steps, which vary slightly with the type of drill being presented. In the case of a simple substitution drill such as:

The books're on the (   ).
table
chair
desk
floor

the teacher begins by asking the students to repeat what he says. He then says: The books are on the table. The students, as a group and in unison, repeat the sentence again. This serves one of two functions: for some students, it simply acts as reinforcement for a correct response; for others, it provides them with an opportunity to hear, once they have made a faulty attempt, the sentence as it should be produced. Then the students repeat the sentence a second time. This is either additional reinforcement, or an opportunity to produce the desired sentence correctly. That completes one double mim-mem sequence. Next, the teacher provides only the cue statement, which in this case might be: on the chair. The students are expected to say: The books're on the chair. For the first reinforcement or the correction step, the teacher repeats the entire sentence, as it should have been said, and the students repeat this sentence.

This process, in more complex drills, such as the transformation or individual type, is essentially the same. In the transformation drill, it is necessary to give more careful directions and an example to illustrate the type of change which the students are expected to make. It is also important that the examples be carefully controlled for consistency, or there is certain to be considerable confusion. The need for consistency is probably more important than controlling for difficulty. In the material used in this project, Lesson I has a transformation drill in which the following type of change was to be made:

The sun came up. --> The sun'll come up tomorrow, too.

From that point on in the dialect lessons, any sentence which required the future and ended with the word tomorrow also had to have too added, even though this was neither mentioned nor encouraged.

Often during the course of the lessons, a particular sentence or drill pattern would cause the students to start generating sentences of their own. When this occurred, the prepared lesson was set aside until everyone had an opportunity to say the sentence he had composed, or until interest waned. At that point the class would return to the prepared lesson.

The procedure was much the same as for transformation drills, except that it was usually necessary with individual drills to begin with students who would be certain to produce correct responses. The cue question might be: What'd you do? The answer might be: I walked to the store. The teacher would repeat this for the class, which would then say the sentence, to be repeated once more by the teacher and a second time by the class. In this way, the four stages were continued even when a drill was being directed by student's responses. On those occasions when a poorly formed sentence was given, it was edited by the teacher so that it would be appropriate, and the drill continued. In every instance, the emphasis was on getting as many responses per lesson as possible from the children.

The disadvantage of choral drills, that it can be difficult to identify students whose responses are incorrect, is largely mitigated by the number of opportunities during a session to respond (over six hundred was the average) and the built-in opportunity for self-correction. None the less, there were times when a particular student would not, after repeated trials, be able to produce the desired response. At such times, the lesson was abandoned for a minute and that student would receive individual attention. However, this practice was kept to a minimum, as it required too much time away from the group. With a little experience in a particular group, a teacher soon becomes aware of which students and what circumstances are likely to benefit from this deviation from the lesson.

In actual practice, the dialect lessons followed a pattern slightly different from the one suggested by the form of the lessons in Appendix B. Every day, the lesson would begin by having small groups of students, or perhaps individual students, say the dialog to each other. As these dialogs were quickly memorized, they were useful in getting everyone ready to begin. The next step was usually to have a brief drill on the minimal contrasts being taught in the lesson, either isolated or in a context, depending on the difficulty the item presented. Following this, the main dimension of the lesson - - the substitution, transformation, or individual drills - - was presented. After several minutes these would become tiresome and a different type of drill would be presented, perhaps another minimal contrast drill. After a few more substitution-type drills, the session would end with individual students saying the dialog to each other. There was no fixed plan for each day, so that it was possible to shift the order and adapt the drills to the situation, day by day. In every case, however, the material in the dialect lessons was covered to the satisfaction of the teacher.

The actual drill time was twenty five minutes per day, immediately following the lunch hour. This time is not ideal for lessons which require considerable concentration, but it was the only time available. The dialect lessons were given five days a week for a period of eight weeks, with the exception of one Friday, which came between the seventh and eighth weeks of instruction. The actual treatment time was: twenty five minutes per day, for thirty nine days, or a total of 14.52 hours of class time.

The control group was given a placebo, in order to control any possible Hawthorne effect which might have resulted from the intrusion of the dialect teacher working only with the experimental group. On three days a week, Monday, Wednesday, and Friday, the dialect teacher would go from the dialect group to the placebo group. There he would read stories which were selected to appeal to first graders. These books are listed in Appendix C. When time permitted, a brief discussion would follow the reading, which served to find out if the stories were understood and to recapitulate the action. It was felt that the activities in the placebo group should, insofar as possible, involve language. As a further control of any possible Hawthorne effect, the participating teachers were told as little about the design and purpose of the research as possible. The total amount of time in the placebo group was: twenty five minutes per day, three days per week, for seven and two-thirds weeks, or a total of 9.58 hours, roughly two-thirds the amount of time spent with the experimental group.

The research design and procedure just described accurately outline the steps which were used in this project. The results of these practices are described in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

First hypothesis

The first hypothesis states that children who have received dialect training over an eight week period should achieve lower error scores on the dialect posttest than students who did not receive dialect training. The pretest and posttest results of the dialect test are presented in Table 2, on the following page.

On the pretest, each teacher's control group had a lower initial score than her experimental group. Every pair of pretest-posttest cells indicates that the error rate decreased by the end of the treatment time. Also, each teacher's experimental group, even though it began with a higher pretest error rate, finished with a lower error rate than her control group.

In order to maximize the differences described above, it was demonstrated that the pretest means and variances for the control groups are not statistically different from the experimental group scores. Then a two-way analysis of variance of the error differences, instead of the posttest mean scores, was conducted. This technique should point up any of the following:

1) differences between teachers;
2) differences between treatments;
3) interaction between teachers and treatments.

A two-way analysis of variance using the posttest scores would tend to minimize the differences illustrated in Table 2.

The first step was to pool the pretest scores by treatment groups. Those results are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 2

Rystrom's Dialect Deviation Test

Error means, pretest-posttest mean differences, standard deviations

Teacher		Control Group			Experimental Group		
		Pretest	Posttest	Mean Difference	Pretest	Posttest	Mean Difference
H	mean	51.31	45.80	- 5.51	59.00	44.58	- 14.42
	standard deviation	28.09	23.33		25.95	22.60	
	subjects	12	14		14	12	
B	mean	60.93	42.20	-18.73	63.73	40.93	- 12.80
	standard deviation	43.79	21.62		29.50	22.71	
	subjects	13	14		14	13	

* Indicates significance at 0.05

TABLE 3

Rystrom's Dialect Deviation Test

Pooled pretest error means and standard deviations
for experimental and control groups

group	M	SD	N
control	56.31	37.15	25
experimental	61.36	27.78	28

Homogeneity of variance is demonstrated by an F-test, the pooled variance of the control group divided by the pooled variance of the experimental group:

$$F = s_1^2 / s_2^2 = 1.79$$

If these variances were statistically different, the F-value would either exceed 1.93 or be smaller than 0.51. The pooled pretest variances for the experimental and control groups on the dialect test were found to be statistically equivalent. The next step was to demonstrate that the mean scores for the pooled experimental and control groups are not statistically different.

In order to simplify the computation of the analysis of variance, a constant factor of +34 was added to each of the pretest-posttest differences, eliminating all minus scores which resulted from students who had a higher posttest error score than pretest error score. To equalize the number of cases in each cell, one score was randomly deleted from two of the cells.

TABLE 4

Rystrom's Dialect Deviation Test

Two-way analysis of variance of pretest-posttest differences

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Rows (teachers)	760.1	1	760.1	1.64
Columns (treatments)	35.1	1	35.1	.08
Interaction	474.9	1	474.9	1.02
Error	20,421.4	44	464.1	
Totals	21,691.5	47		

*Indicates significance at 0.05

The first hypothesis was rejected. There was no statistically significant difference between groups as a result of the dialect training lessons used in this experiment.

The scoring techniques used for the dialect test, counting every phoneme in a sentence as one potential error, could have resulted in the masking of differences on items taught in the dialect lessons. That is, the experimental children might have received lower posttest error scores on an item like modal will than the control children did, but they might otherwise have missed approximately the same number of phonemes. In order to examine this possibility, the /-əl/ configuration only was examined, in sentences 3, 5, 7, 10, 11, and 19.

In order to equalize the number of subjects in each cell, one subject was dropped from one cell and two subjects were dropped from two cells (using a random number table). Then a two-way analysis of variance was done on these posttest error scores; the results are listed in Table 5.

TABLE 5

Rystrom's Dialect Deviation Test

Two-way analysis of variance of posttest error scores on modal will

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Rows (teachers)	2.52	1	2.52	.61
Columns (treatments)	.02	1	.02	.005
Interaction	1.69	1	1.69	.41
Error	183.25	44	4.16	
Totals	187.48	47		

*Indicates significance at 0.05

Second Hypothesis

The second hypothesis asserts that students who receive dialect training should achieve higher sight-word reading scores, using a test composed of words common to most basal readers. This result is expected because dialect-trained students should, after eight weeks, have begun to identify features which were not evident because of deviations in their dialect. With a new dialect at their command to isolate and identify previously unrecognized word elements, the hypothesis suggests that students in the experimental group should achieve higher scores than students in the control group.

The pretest and posttest data for the Gates Word Pronunciation Test will be found in Table 6. Perhaps the most interesting observation about these data is the fact that all of the scores are very low. The highest mean score for any group is fewer than eight words. In the data for each child, the highest score was eighteen, of a total possible of forty. Although some of the children in the experiment were beginning to read moderately well, it is clear that most of them were still in the initial stages.

The same procedures for examining the first hypothesis were employed in analyzing the data presented here: that is, the control and experimental pretest scores were pooled; the pooled scores were compared to see if the means and variances were statistically different; a two-way analysis

TABLE 6

Gates Word Pronunciation Test

Error means, pretest-posttest mean differences, standard deviations

Teacher		Control Group			Experimental Group		
		Pretest	Posttest	Mean Difference	Pretest	Posttest	Mean Difference
H	mean	4.46	7.80	+ 3.34	4.62	7.69	+ 3.07
	standard deviation	2.69	3.85		1.94	3.99	
	subjects	12	14		13	13	
B	mean	4.79	6.13	+ 1.34	3.00	6.07	+ 3.07
	standard deviation	3.51	3.82		1.81	4.35	
	subjects	13	14		13	13	

* Indicates significance at 0.05

of variance was employed to determine if there was any treatment effect.

TABLE 7

Pooled pretest means and standard deviations
for experimental and control groups

group	M	SD	N
control	4.63	3.14	25
experimental	3.81	1.88	26

Using the same formula as employed previously, the computed F-value for the test of homogeneity of variance is 2.80, the critical value at 0.05 being above 1.96 or below 0.51. The critical value at 0.01 is above 2.62 and below 0.38. The variances of these two groups can not be considered homogeneous. However, the homogeneity of variance requirement may be violated without serious consequence when the number of subjects in each cell is the same.

When the pooled mean scores for the experimental and control groups were tested, the resulting t-score was 1.14; the critical values lie below -1.71 and above +1.71. The mean scores of these two samples were not statistically different. The two-way analysis of variance could also be used for non-homogeneous variances because the number of subjects per cell was equal.

TABLE 8

Gates Word Pronunciation Test

Two-way analysis of variance of pretest-posttest differences

Source	SS	df	MS	F
Rows (teachers)	13.1	1	13.1	1.46
Columns (treatments)	3.2	1	3.2	.36
Interaction	13.1	1	13.1	1.46
Error	360.2	40	9.0	
Totals	389.6	43		

*Indicates significance at 0.05

The second hypothesis was rejected. The experimental groups did not differ statistically from the control groups in their ability to read non-regular words.

Third hypothesis

The third hypothesis states that students who have been given intensive drill in standard English dialect for a short period of time should achieve higher scores on a reading test which controls the regularity of phoneme-grapheme correspondence. This hypothesis suggests that children who begin to speak standard English have begun to acquire decoding skills which will enable them to read a greater number of words than non-dialect trained students.

The pretest and posttest data for Fry's Phonetically Regular Words Oral Reading Test were so abnormally distributed that any analysis of the data would be inappropriate. The most frequent score, whether for pretest, posttest, Teacher B, or Teacher H, was a zero. On the pretest, forty six of the fifty students who took the test scored a zero; on the posttest, thirty nine of the fifty four students to take the test scored zeros. On the pretest, two control and two experimental students were able to read one or more words correctly. On the posttest, seven control students and eight experimental students were able to read one or more words correctly. The posttest mean score for the control groups was 5.1 words, 3.4 words for the experimental group. In other words, the proportion of students in the control group and in the experimental group remained almost exactly the same, and the mean scores for the two groups were about the same.

The following conclusions result from an analysis of the data. First, there is no relationship between the dialect training procedures used and the dialect difference scores. Second, there is no

TABLE 9

Fry's Phonetically Regular Words Oral Reading Test

Distribution of posttest scores

score	experimental group	control group	total
zero	18	21	39
above zero	8	7	15
totals	26	28	54

relationshp between the dialect training used and the reading scores received by any of the four treatment groups. Third, there is no significant interaction between teacher and treatment groups, with respect to dialect scores or reading scores.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY

Purpose

The importance of reading in both the schools and beyond makes it imperative that reading researchers attempt to identify and construct methods for teaching the various component skills which together define the generalization called reading. This project dealt with one factor which may be related to reading for one particular group of students in the United States.

A number of outstanding scholars in both reading and linguistics have suggested that Negro children might achieve higher reading scores as a result of training in a standard dialect of English. One purpose of this research study was to explore techniques and construct materials which could be used to teach standard English to Negro children. A second purpose was to teach the materials developed and measure the effects of that training on achievement scores.

Hypotheses

In order to explore the research purposes stated above, the following hypotheses were stated:

1) In eight weeks, Negro children can be taught to use elements of standard English dialect which do not occur in their native dialect;
2) The knowledge of this additional dimension of dialect will have a positive and significant influence on word reading scores;
3) Dialect training will have a positive and significant influence on word reading tests in which the relationship between letters and sounds is controlled.

Design and methods

Two first grade classrooms from one school of the Oakland, California Public Schools were chosen for the study. The school is located on the middle portion of the flatlands near the San Francisco Bay, and serves a population which is almost completely Negro. It draws from a wide variety of socio-economic classes within that area. Many of the families are poor, fatherless, and on relief. Many of the children come from homes where the father is working in one of the service trades. In some cases, the family has achieved financial and social stability within the community.

After it was determined that the students were assigned to these classes in random order, each class was then further divided randomly into two halves, making a total of four groups. Half of one class was joined to half of the other class; this group became the experimental group. The remaining two halves were joined and became the control group. In this way, the experimental group was composed of equal numbers of students from each teacher, as was the control group. The reading groups of each teacher were not affected. This division produced the following groups of students:

Teacher B - control group

Teacher B - experimental group

Teacher H - control group

Teacher H - experimental group

Designing the study in this way allowed both differences in treatment and differences in teacher effect to be measured.

Rather than attempt to teach all of the differences between the Negro dialect and standard English, a few features which have been documented by several writers were chosen and materials were written to be used with the techniques developed for teaching English as a foreign language. Five lessons - - modal will, past tense morphemes, the singular copula, the plural copula, and consonantal clusters - - were taught over a period of eight weeks.

Each subject was given a pretest and a posttest. The following instruments were used:

Rystrom's Dialect Deviation Test

Gates Word Pronunciation Test

Fry's Phonetically Regular Words

Oral Reading Test.

Findings

All three hypotheses were rejected. This project did not demonstrate any statistically significant differences between groups as a result of the treatment.

Recommendations for future research

As a result of the research project just described, a number of suggestions about design and methodology for future research have been identified. A follow-up study incorporating these features may help to clarify the relationshp between dialect and reading.

First, the length of time alloted to the dialect training period might have been too short to allow differences to develop between groups. Language is a highly complicated process, one which can upset people with little apparent provocation, because language is so intimately a part of who we are. Too, the use of language is so automatic and effortless, so completely a matter of habit, with our attention on the message we wish to convey, that we ignore the complexity of the underlying process. An unsophisticated user of English is not convinced that making fine acoustic discriminations, as in the sentences below, can be a complex task:

I'm going to drive the car.

I'm going to dry the car.

It is difficult to change language behavior, and perhaps more complicated to teach a dialect than to teach a different language. With a new language, students know they are unfamiliar with the features they are learning. In the case of dialect lessons, there is the possibility that many of the experimental group students were never convinced of a real or important difference between their native dialect and the dialect being taught. Failure to note this difference could have resulted in a lack of motivation. There is no reason to study a dialect which does not exist.

Dialect differences often go unnoticed. For example, some people in California pronounce wash as /warš/ without noticing the intrusive -r- in their speech, or the lack of it in the speech of others. The strategy for teaching dialect should be exaggerated, so the purpose of the dialect lessons is near mastery of the target dialect. This automatically means that dialect lessons should be spread out over a longer period of time. It may be necessary to continue the lessons for two or three years.[41] With more time, for both recognition of differences and for production of these differences, the relationship between dialect and reading suggested by Loban, McDavid, Ruddell and Strickland might be demonstrated.

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[41] Dale Crowley's research in Hawaii suggests that results become apparent within the second year.

Second, there was no explicit connection between the dialect lessons and the reading program. It was anticipated that the object of the lessons would be evident to the subjects and they would begin to use their new skills in the reading lessons; the teachers were instructed not to be concerned with the lessons used with the experimental group. It would be interesting to know what changes would have occurred if the teachers had been informed about the material in the lessons and how it was being used, if they had been given copies of the lessons to examine and use in their reading programs. Some of the features taught in the dialect lessons do not occur in the basal reading texts which were used in the two classes. For instance, the first dialect lesson, devoted to the use of modal will and requiring seven of the thirty nine days of instruction, emphasized a lexical item which is not in the first grade readers. Lesson two, which dealt with deleted past tense morphemes, was almost as poorly represented. The series does introduce past tense forms, but many of them are irregular verbs (e.g., said). There are not numerous examples of regular verbs in the present tense, next to the same verb with the -ed past tense marker. This lack of contrast may have had an effect on the results. As Strickland has pointed out, there is considerable difference between the speech used by students and the represented language in their reading texts. It was a mistake in this project to believe that first graders would be able to see a relationship between the dialect lessons and reading, then make use of that relationship in the complicated process of learning to read. This connection should have been made clear.

Third, there is a critical need for new tests to measure the reading ability of children at the low end of the scale. This problem was also encountered by Horn,[42] who noted the lack of tests which measure the reading abilities of students in the initial phases of acquiring reading skills. Considerable evidence was invalidated because it was measured by inadequate tests. One of the contributions of substrata-factor research, in addition to the identification of the lower-order skills, may be the creation of new test instruments to measure these skills.

Fourth, it seems clear that a variety of techniques for teaching dialect should be employed which would add interest and motivation to the lessons. The emphasis should not be on making the children learn a new dialect, but on helping them find intrinsic pleasure in learning the target dialect. A number of simple devices, such as songs written for the features being studied, simple plays and situations, more extensive use of dialogs, etc., should be written.

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[42] Horn, "A comparison," The First Grade Reading Studies, pp. 51 - 55.

Finally, there is some possibility that the treatment used with the control group, reading stories and discussing them afterwards, may have had an effect of the posttest performance scores. The placebo treatment and the experimental treatment were both conducted by the investigator. It could be argued that the recognition skills the control group received during this short time were as important as the recognition and production skills acquired by the experimental group. It is reasonable to suspect that both groups might have improved in such related areas as vocabulary. The placebo treatment used with the control group may have been as influential as the treatment used with the experimental group.

If a clear relationship between dialect and reading can be demonstrated, in such a way that it is evident dialect training for Negro children is useful in improving their reading ability, a first step in the right direction will have been taken and the interval between literacy and illiteracy will have been decreased by that much.

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APPENDIX A

TEST INSTRUMENTS

RYSTROM'S DIALECT DEVIATION TEST

Directions

1. Write in the student's first and last name;
2. Write in the name of the student's teacher;
3. Check "Pre" for the pretest; check "Post" for the posttest;
4. Put the student's score on the "Score" line.

Turn on the small tape recorder, which contains the speech which the child is to imitate. Then turn on the larger tape recorder, which will record both the cues on the small tape recorder and the child's answers. The moment both tape recorders are running, say the name of the student to identify his responses on the tape. As the child repeats each sentence, mark each sound he deletes with an X, each sound he distorts with a ⬭ , and each sound he adds with an ∧ (and put in the added sounds). For example:

He a$\bigcirc\!\!\!\!\!\text{sk}$ed a question. (child's response: "axed")

The boy'$\cancel{s}$ go. (child's response: "The boy go.")

My hands$\underset{is}{\wedge}$are hot. (child's response: "handsis")

RYSTROM'S DIALECT DEVIATION TEST

Name ______________________________ Teacher ______________________________

Score ________________________ Pre _________ Post ____________

1. /may arm felt gúd/
2. /hir buks gríynən red/
3. /ðə keykəl teyst ówld təmarow/
4. /ðəkéyk teystəd owld/
5. /śil iyt kúkiyz/
6. /hiz hǽnd felt kowld/
7. /səməv ə́səl ɨn+ǰoy siŋ+ɨŋ/
8. /may árm fiylz gud/
9. /nów+wən ɨnǰoyd ðə stowrm/
10. /may frendzəl sel ðer háws/
11. /ðis howrsəl fal dáwn/
12. /ðey klowzd ðə géyt/
13. /sə́məv+əs ɨn+ǰoyd siŋ+ɨŋ/
14. /ðə kéyk teysts owld/
15. /ðər iyrz fiyl sóft/
16. /šiy iyts kúkiyz/
17. /ðə líyvz bərnd/
18. /hiz hænd fiylz kówld/
19. /evriy čayldəl liyv ɨ́rliy/
20. /hérəld towld miy ðeyər leyt/
21. /évriy čayld left ɨrliy/
22. /may frendz sowld ðer ówld haws/
23. /evriy čayld liyvz ɨ́rliy/
24. /wiy pleyd awtsáyd tədey/
25. /ðey krawst ðə stríyt/

GATES WORD PRONUNCIATION TEST

Directions

1. Write in the student's first and last name;
2. Write in the name of the student's teacher (in the "School" blank);
3. Check "Pre" for the pretest; check "Post" for the posttest;
4. Write in your name as the examiner;
5. Put the student's score on the "Score" line.

Have the child read the words out loud. Tell him you would like him to read some words for you. If he fails the first time, ask him to try the word again. Continue until ten consecutive words have been missed. As the words become difficult, special care should be taken to encourage the child. The score is one point for each word correctly pronounced on the first trial, one-half point for each word correctly pronounced on the second trial. (Note: 9 1/2 correct would be scored as 10.)

GATES WORD PRONUNCIATION TEST

Name ________________ Pre_____ Examiner________________

School ________________ Post_____ Score ___________R ______

1. so
2. we
3. as
4. go
5. the
6. not
7. how
8. may
9. king
10. here
11. grow
12. late
13. every
14. about
15. paper
16. blind
17. window
18. family
19. perhaps
20. plaster
21. passenger
22. wander
23. interest
24. chocolate
25. dispute
26. portion
27. conductor
28. brightness
29. intelligent
30. construct
31. position
32. profitable
33. irregular
34. schoolmaster
35. lamentation
36. community
37. satisfactory
38. illustrious
39. superstition
40. affectionate

FRY'S PHONETICALLY REGULAR WORDS ORAL READING TEST

Directions

1. Write in the student's first and last name;
2. Write in the name of the student's teacher (in the "School" blank);
3. Check "Pre" for the pretest; check "Post" for the posttest;
4. Write in your name as the examiner;
5. Put the student's score on the "Score" line.

Have pupil read words from one copy while you mark another copy. Do not give pupil a second chance, but accept immediate self-correction. Let every pupil try the whole first column. If he gets two words correct from word number six on, let him try the whole second column. If he gets three words correct, let him try the whole third column. Mark correct words C and incorrect words X.

FRY'S PHONETICALLY REGULAR WORDS ORAL READING TEST

Name ________________ Pre_____ Examiner ___________________

School _______________Post_____ Score ______________R _____

1. nap
2. pen
3. hid
4. job
5. rug
6. shade
7. drive
8. joke
9. mule
10. plain
11. hay
12. keen
13. least
14. loan
15. slow
16. stalk
17. haul
18. jaw
19. soil
20. joy
21. frown
22. trout
23. term
24. curl
25. birch
26. rare
27. star
28. porch
29. smooth
30. shook
31. yoke
32. glory
33. shy
34. quaff
35. taught
36. bundle
37. nix
38. civic
39. Philip
40. preach
41. cracked
42. swish
43. frankfurter
44. twelfth
45. drowse

APPENDIX B

DIALECT MATERIALS

Lesson 1 - - Modal *will*

Lesson 2 - - Past tense morpheme deletions

Lesson 3 - - Singular copula, /i/e/

Lesson 4 - - Past tense morpheme reductions

Lesson 5 - - Plural copula, possessive

LESSON 1

Dialog

Della: I'll be learning school-talk soon.
Bill: What's school talk?
Della: It's a way we'll be taught to talk differently.
Bill: How'll you do that?
Della: The teacher'll say a sentence and each child'll repeat it.
Bill: I think that'll be fun.

1.1 Memorize the dialog.

1.2 Practice the dialog in two groups.

1.3 Switch practice groups.

1.4 Recognition drill: (using props)

bow - - bowl

1.5 Substitution drill:

I'll be learning ( ) soon.
school-talk
the alphabet
science
art
new words
school-talk

He'll be learning ( ) soon.
school-talk
the alphabet
science
art
new words
school-talk

She'll be learning ( ) soon.
school-talk
the alphabet
science
art
new words
school-talk

We'll be learning ( ) soon.
school-talk
the alphabet
science
art
new words
school-talk

You'll be learning ( ) soon.
school-talk
the alphabet
science
art
new words
school-talk

They'll be learning ( ) soon.
school-talk
the alphabet
science
art
new words
school-talk

1.6 Recognition and production drill:

[cue:] Where is it?

[response:] The ( )'s on the ( ).
bow - using objects in
bowl the room -

1.7 Substitution drill:

We'll be taught to ( )differently.
talk
sing
play
draw
work
listen
talk

You'll be taught to ( ) differently.
talk
sing
play
draw
work
listen
talk

She'll be taught to ( ) differently.
talk
sing
play
draw
work
listen
talk

They'll be taught to ( ) differently.
talk
sing
play
draw
work
listen
talk

We'll be taught to ( ) differently.
talk
sing
play
draw
work
listen
talk

I'll be taught to ( ) differently.
talk
sing
play
draw
work
listen
talk

1.8 Transformation drill: I'll tell you what happened to my friend yesterday, and you tell me the same thing will happen to him tomorrow, too. For example:

[cue:] His mother woke him up.

[response:] His mother'll wake him up tomorrow too.

The sun came up.

The stars disappeared.

My dream ( ).
ended
frightened me
woke me up

The dogs( ).
barked
went back to sleep
scratched fleas

His sister ( ).
woke up
got up
got dressed

His sisters (   ).
woke up
got up
got dressed

Her foot (   ).
itched
hurt
ached
smelled

His sock (   ).
ripped
came apart
fell to pieces

His socks (   ).
ripped
came apart
fell to pieces

A baseball rolled (   ).
under the bed
across the floor
out the door

Several baseballs rolled (   ).
under the bed
across the floor
out the door

The orange juice tasted (   ).
bad
like dishwater
funny

His dish (   ).
fell down
tipped over

His dishes (   ).
fell down
tipped over

Her ring (   ).
slid down the drain
fell on the floor
got lost

Her rings (   ).
slid down the drain
fell on the floor
got lost

The hands on his watch (   ).
quit moving
stopped
told the wrong time

Bob came (   ).
home today
to my house today
to school today

Dave (   ).
felt better
went to sleep
had funny dreams

1.9 Progression drill: The teacher'll say a sentence.

man [response:] The man'll say a sentence.

word [response:] The man'll say a word.

spell [response:] The man'll spell a word.

Kate [response:] Kate'll spell a word.

child

read

Tom

The king

book

Ray

Joe

story

His wife

Alma

Skip

tell

The judge

The class

Ruth

a lie

Mary

Bob

1.10 Individual response drill:

[cue:] Who is going somewhere? Where are you going?

[response:] I'm going to _______.

[class:] I'll be going to ________tomorrow, too.

LESSON 2

Dialog

Sarah: Linda'd like to play school this afternoon.
Willy: We played school yesterday.
Sarah: She'd let you be Teacher.
Willy: We tried that before.
Sarah: But this time you'd get to choose.
Willy: OK. I'd like to teach school-talk and reading.
Sarah: No! We studied those subjects at school.
Willy: You lied to me.
Sarah: Um-mm. You tried the wrong subjects.
Willy: I understand; I must guess what you'd like to play.

2.1 Memorize the dialog.

2.2 Practice the dialog in two groups.

2.3 Switch practice groups.

2.4 Recognition drill: (using props)

band-A   band aid

2.5 Substitution drill:

( ) studied reading yesterday.
We
He

( ) studied arithmetic yesterday.
We
He
I
She
They

( ) stayed in a hotel.
We
He
I
She
They

( ) stayed home.
We
He
I
She
They

( ) stayed with Uncle Fred.
We
He
I
She
They

2.6 Substitution drill:

This boy'd like to ( ) this afternoon.
teach school-talk
sing songs
play school
watch TV
take a nap

They'd like to ( ) this afternoon.
teach school-talk
sing songs
play school
watch TV
take a nap

You'd like to (   ) this afternoon.
teach school-talk
play school
sing songs
watch TV
take a nap

Linda'd like to (   ) this afternoon.
teach school-talk
play school
sing songs
watch TV
take a nap

Joe'd like to (   ) this afternoon.
teach school-talk
play school
sing songs
watch TV
take a nap

The baby'd like to (   ) this afternoon.
play school
sing songs
watch TV
take a nap

I'd like to (   ) this afternoon.
teach school-talk
play school
sing songs
watch TV
take a nap

2.7 Substitution drill:

Her friend stayed (   ).
by himself
with us
next door
near our house

My friend stayed (   ).
by himself
with us
next door
near our house

His friend stayed (   ).
by himself
with us
next door
near our house

Mr. Lawton showed Raymond (   ) dog.
his
your
our
my
their

Mr. Lawrence showed Raymond (   ) dog.
her
your
our
my
their

Mr. Lawson showed Raymond (   ) dog.
her
your
our
my
their

Mrs. Robbins fried some (   ).
chicken
hamburgers
pork chops
liver
bacon
steak

Mrs. Roberts fried some (   )
chicken
hamburgers
pork chops
liver
bacon

Mrs. Randall fried some (   ).
chicken
hamburgers
pork chops
liver
bacon

Your class studied ( ).
music
spelling
science
numbers
reading

Our class studied ( ).
music
spelling
science
numbers
reading

Their class studied ( ).
music
spelling
science
numbers
reading

They continued their ( ).
story
lesson
trip
work
lesson

We continued their ( ).
story
lesson
trip
work
lesson

She continued their ( ).
story
lesson
trip
work

2.8 Individual response drill:

[cue:] What did Mrs. Roberts fry?

[response:] She fried ( )
- using child's response -

2.9 Substitution drill:

I think they'd (   ) us.
believe
find
thank
choose
notice
call

I think that boy'd (   ) us.
believe
find
thank
choose
notice
call

I think you'd (   ) us.
believe
find
thank
choose
notice
call

I think Joe'd (   ) us.
believe
find
thank
choose
notice
call

I think I'd (   ) us.
believe
find
thank
choose
notice
call

I think we'd (   ) us.
believe
find
thank
choose
notice
call

I think Della'd ( ) us.

believe
find
thank
choose
notice
call

Now'd be a good time to ( ).

leave
sing
play
study
read

Now'd be a bad time to ( ).

leave
sing
play
study
read

2.9 Individual response drill:

[cue:] What would ( ) like to do today?

you
I
he
she

[response:] I'd like to ( ) today.

2.10 Review Drill: I'll tell you what is happening now, you tell me the same thing will be true tomorrow, too.

Example: She's tired. ---> She'll be tired tomorrow, too.

His tie is ( ).

green
funny looking
old
too dark

His tie'll be ( ) tomorrow, too.

My eye feels funny.

The city has a lot of ( ).
cars
people
traffic

The girl in blue is ( ).
my friend
with us
the leader
on our team

My tray needs to be ( ).
put away
fixed
cleaned
wiped

Every toy is ( ).
broken
fixed
put away

My shoe needs to be ( ).
fixed
shined
tied

Each boy comes to school ( ).
early
before noon
quickly
for lunch

The show is over ( ).
at 3
before dinner
early
soon

This row goes out ( ).
first
last
as soon as it is ready

LESSON 3

Dialog

Bill: What's going on here?
Nell: This's our school-talk lesson.
Bill: It seems to make a lot of noise.
Nell: That's because we all speak together.
Bill: If everyone talks, who's going to listen?
Nell: Each sentence's given by the teacher; then it's our turn
to repeat it.
Bill: I'll bet this class's learning a lot.
Nell: Each child's listening carefully and everyone's doing
his best work.

3.1 Memorize the dialog.

3.2 Practice the dialog in two groups.

3.3 Switch practice groups.

3.4 Recognition drill: /pin/pen/ (using props)

3.5 Substitution drill:

This's my ( ).
blackboard
door
book
coat
rack
pencil

eraser
flag
table
pencil box
coat
crayon
chalk
window
chair
bookcase
coathanger
ruler

That's my (   ).
door
blackboard
book
coat
rack
pencil
eraser
flag
table
pencil box
coat
crayon
chalk
window
chair
bookcase
coathanger
ruler

That one's my (   ).
door
blackboard
book
coat
rack
pencil
eraser
flag
table
pencil box
coat
crayon
chalk

window
chair
bookcase
coat-hanger
ruler

3.6 Substitution drill: (starred items could be done individually)

* The money's on the ( ).
table
shelf
stove
bed

* Each day's more ( ) than the one before it.
interesting
exciting
tiring

One eye's closed and the other eye's ( ).
blue
green
brown
black

* The front window's ( ).
broken
cracked
smashed
gone

* His home's near the ( ).
school
library
post office
grocery store

* Each boy's very ( ).
careful
busy
helpful
good

I think the glue's in that ( ).
bottle
jar
pot
tube

* My bed's next to the (   ).
wall
door
chest
closet

* The garden's full of (   ).
flowers
plants
trees
vegetables

* Our school's painted (   ).
green
yellow
brown
white

Your egg's in the (   ).
pot
refrigerator
egg carton
dish

This building's (   ) than I thought.
older
newer
bigger
closer

I'll bet my answer's (   ).
correct
right
perfect
good

3.7 Recognition & production drill:

(   )'s a (   ).
This | pin
That | pen
(Using props)

3.8 Substitution drill: (double mim-mem)

That ship's (   ) tomorrow.
going
leaving

His laugh's driving ( ) crazy.
me
us
them
everyone

The red cloth's ( ) than the pink cloth.
longer
wider
bigger
prettier

I think that cut's going to ( ) better soon.
look
feel
be

His book's leaning against the ( ).
desk
wall
door
chair

Our class's learning ( ).
school-talk
arithmetic
spelling
to read

Her nose's ( ) than mine.
longer
shorter
bigger
littler

That branch's going to be ( ).
cut down
burned
chopped off
sawed off

Every dish's going to be ( ).
washed
broken
put away
dried

The Bay bridge's very ( ).
tall
long
wide
high

3.9 Individual response drill:

(Each student says to the person next to him: My name's __________. What's your name?)

3.10 Recognition-production drill:

I'll point to Miss Dill or to Mrs. Dell and tell you what she did. You tell me what she is doing.

(Miss) wrote to her friends.

(Miss) looked for her keys.

(Mrs.) shopped for a new umbrella.

(Miss) telephoned a friend.

(Mrs.) joined a club.

(Mrs.) drove to school.

(Miss) threaded a needle.

(Miss) changed her shoes.

(Mrs.) gave us a new story to read.

(Miss) flew to Oakland to visit her sister.

(Mrs.) sang in the church choir.

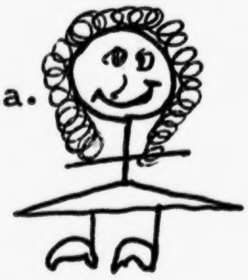
(Mrs.) bought a new hat.

(Miss) played jump rope during recess.

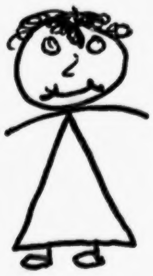
(Miss) made the decorations in our room.

(Mrs.) came to school early today.

(Mrs.) wrote to her friends.



Miss
Dill



Mrs.
Dell

(Mrs.) looked for her keys.

(Miss) shopped for a new umbrella.

(Mrs.) telephoned a friend.

(Miss) joined a club.

(Miss) drove to school.

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(Mrs.) changed her shoes.

(Miss) gave us a new story to read.

(Mrs.) flew to Oakland to visit her sister.

(Miss) sang in the church choir.

(Miss) bought a new hat.

(Mrs.) played jump rope during recess.

(Mrs.) made the decorations in our room.

(Miss) came to school early today.

3.11 Individual response drill:

[cue:]
Whose ( ) is this?

[response:]
It's ( ) ( ).
my - using objects
his
our in the room -
their
her
Jimmy's
etc.

3.12 Recognition and production drill:

Ked	spill	let	cheer	rear	lit	fill
bell	miss	chair	pit	ked	pen	set
hair	deck	bed	head	spend	listen	beer
sit	here	tin	hid	till	fell	deer
pet	Jim	lesson	lid	air	ten	been
mitt	gem	spell	/ter/	rid	mess	dare
bid	fill	pin	bit	dill	rare	Ben
/tir/	spinned	tell	check	red	bear	Dick
fair	well	met	will	chick	dell	fear

Please don't ( ) it.
spell
spill

3.13 Transform drill: I'll tell you what happened yesterday. You tell me it's happening now.

Bob came with ( ).
me
us
them

Response: Bob's coming with ( ) now.
me
us
them

Mr. Smith looked ( ).
ill
happy
sad
well

Miss Smith looked ( ).
ill
happy
sad
well

George came to my (   ).
house
school
room
class
meeting

Ray left by (   ).
bus
train
boat
plane

3.14 Review drill: (lessons 1 & 2).

(I'll give you the sentence and then tell you to change it either to yesterday or to tomorrow).

(tomorrow) My (   ) eye is better.
dog's
friend's
brother's
mom's

(tomorrow) We have to get a new (   ).
pencil
eraser
book
ruler

(yesterday) The boy's sister plays with her (   ).
friends
dolls
blocks
toys

(tomorrow) Linda ate the (   ) food.
dog's
cat's
mouse's
rabbit's

(tomorrow) My (   ) foot is better.
dog's
friend's
brother's
mom's

(tomorrow) They have to get a new ( ).
pencil
eraser
book
ruler

(yesterday) The chief's sister plays with her ( ).
friends
dolls
blocks
toys

(tomorrow) Joe ate the ( ) food.
dog's
cat's
mouse's
rabbit's

(tomorrow) My ( ) ear is better.
dog's
friend's
brother's
mom's

(tomorrow) I have to get a new ( ).
pencil
eraser
book
ruler

(yesterday) The man's sister plays with her ( ).
friends
dolls
blocks
toys

(tomorrow) Tom ate the ( ) food.
dog's
cat's
mouse's
rabbit's

(tomorrow) My ( ) leg is better.
dog's
friend's
brother's
mom's

(tomorrow) You have to get a new ( ).
pencil
eraser
book
ruler

(yesterday) The judge's sister plays with her ( ).
friends
dolls
blocks
toys

(tomorrow) Jeff ate the ( ) food.
dog's
cat's
mouse's
rabbit's

LESSON 4

Dialog

Arnold: I noticed you were absent.
Edmund: The principal sent me home last Monday.
Arnold: I'll bet you laughed in class; you fooled around.
Edmund: I left school because . . . .
Arnold: You caused trouble during recess.
Edmund: No! I day-dreamed during my school-talk lesson and got behind.
Arnold: He expelled you for that?
Edmund: No exactly. I called the teacher a mess instead of a Miss.

4.1 Memorize the dialog.

4.2 Practice the dialog in two groups.

4.3 Switch practice groups.

4.4 Recognition drill:

chess - chest
den - dent
fine - find
ball - bald
mess - Miss

4.5 Substitution drill:

I noticed you were (   ).
absent
sick
late

tired
angry
hungry
quiet
busy
right

We noticed your were ( ).

absent
sick
late
tired
angry
hungry
quiet
busy
right

She noticed you were ( ).

absent
sick
late
tired
angry
hungry
quiet
busy
right

They noticed you were ( ).

absent
sick
late
tired
angry
hungry
quiet
busy
right

He noticed you were ( ).

absent
sick
late
tired
angry

hungry
quiet
busy
right

The principal sent me (   ) last Monday.
home
in
away
outside
back
here
out

The nurse sent me (   ) last Monday.
home
in
away
outside
back
here
out

The secretary sent me (   ) last Monday.
home
in
away
outside
back
here
out

The teacher sent me (   ) last Monday.
home
in
away
outside
back
here
out

The monitor sent me (   ).
home
in
away
outside
back
here
out

The woman sent me (   ) last Monday.
home
in
away
outside
back
here
out

Ted'll think we left last (   ).
Monday
Tuesday
Wednesday
Thursday
Friday
Saturday
Sunday

Ruth's think we left last (   ).
Monday
Tuesday
Wednesday
Thursday
Friday
Saturday
Sunday

Tom'll think we left last (   ).
Monday
Tuesday
Wednesday
Thursday
Friday
Saturday
Sunday

George'll think we left last (   )
Monday
Tuesday
Wednesday
Thursday
Friday
Saturday
Sunday

Bill'd think we left last (   ).

- Monday
- Tuesday
- Wednesday
- Thursday
- Friday
- Saturday
- Sunday

Dick'll think we left last (   ).

- Monday
- Tuesday
- Wednesday
- Thursday
- Friday
- Saturday
- Sunday

You caused trouble during (   ) yesterday.

- recess
- lunch
- school
- class
- arithmetic
- reading
- spelling

She caused trouble during (   ) yesterday.

- recess
- lunch
- school
- class
- arithmetic
- reading
- spelling

I caused trouble during (   ) yesterday.

- recess
- lunch
- class
- arithmetic
- reading
- spelling

They caused trouble during ( ) yesterday.

recess
lunch
school
class
arithmetic
reading
spelling

He caused trouble during ( ) yesterday.

recess
lunch
school
class
arithmetic
reading
spelling

We caused trouble during ( ) yesterday.

recess
lunch
school
class
arithmetic
reading
spelling

( ) called the teacher a mess.

I
He
They
She
We
You

( ) called the teacher Miss Merritt.

I
He
They
She
We
You

( ) called the teacher Mrs. Merritt.

I
He
They
She
We
You

(   ) called the teacher Miss Bell.
I
He
They
She
We
You

(   ) called the teacher Mrs.Bills.
I
He
They
She
We
You

(   ) called the teacher Mrs. Fear.
I
He
They
She
We
You

(   ) called the teacher Mrs. Fare.
I
He
They
She
We
You

I day-dreamed during my (   ) lesson yesterday.
school-talk
arithmetic
science
art
music
spelling
reading

They day-dreamed during their (   ) lesson yesterday
school-talk
arithmetic
science
art
music
spelling
reading

We day-dreamed during my ( ) lesson yesterday.

school-talk
arithmetic
science
art
music
spelling
reading

He day-dreamed during my ( ) lesson yesterday.

school-talk
arithmetic
science
art
music
spelling
reading

She day-dreamed during my ( ) lesson yesterday.

school-talk
arithmetic
science
art
music
spelling
reading

You day-dreamed during my ( ) lesson yesterday.

school-talk
arithmetic
science
art
music
spelling
reading

I don't know why he opened his ( ) yesterday.

present
eye
book
mouth
hand
box
letter

I don't know when he opened his (   ) yesterday.
present
eye
book
mouth
hand
box
letter

I don't know how he opened his (   ) yesterday.
present
eye
book
mouth
hand
box
letter

I don't know that he opened his (   ) yesterday.
present
eye
book
mouth
hand
box
letter

I don't know where he opened his (   ) yesterday.
present
eye
book
mouth
hand
box
letter

4.6 Recognition and production drill:

Mr. Ball's bald.

He put a dent in the den wall.

The wood chest was a good place to play chess.

He'll plan to go tomorrow.

He planned to go yesterday.

Miss Dennis made a big mess.

His bald head looks like a ball.

The den wall has a dent.

They played chess on the chest.

4.7 Individual drill: (Each child says to the child next to him:)

I __________-ed yesterday, What'd you do?

4.8 Individual drill: (Use the word I give you to tell me what happened yesterday).

lose
cause
return
cough
laugh
name
tell
spend
go
cross
close
open
happen
leave
dream
fill
call
send
guess
raise

4.9 Individual drill: (I'll tell you something; you tell me it's not true).

This question's difficult. (This question's not difficult).

His watch's fast.

My top's broken.

The leaves're falling from the trees.

Her food's too hot to eat.

This color's my favorite.

Your job's learning to read.

Her age's a secret.

His life's very busy now.

The street's too narrow.

His mom's fixing lunch.

My book's on my desk.

The table's all set.

The fish's water is dirty.

His leg's broken.

Ruth's coming with us.

The prize's going to be one dollar.

The king's in his castle.

That price's too much.

LESSON 5

Dialog

Robert: Your lessons in school-talk're nearly over.
Nora: Yes; our teacher said we're doing very well.
Robert: How tough're his stories and sentences?
Nora: They both're pretty difficult.
Robert: What're the lessons for?
Nora: They're just a different way of talking.
Robert: Some kinds of speech're harder to copy than others.
Nora: The children in our group're learning their sounds.

5.1 Memorize the dialog.

5.2 Practice the dialog in two groups.

5.3 Switch practice groups.

5.4 Recognition drill: tie - tire (with props)

5.5 Substitution drill:

The children in our group're learning their ( ).
sounds
arithmetic
reading
spelling
math

The kids in our group're learning their ( ).
sounds
arithmetic
reading
spelling
math

The girls in our group're learning their (   ).
sounds
arithmetic
reading
spelling
math

The people in our group're learning their (   ).
sounds
arithmetic
reading
spelling
math

The boys in our group're learning their (   ).
sounds
arithmetic
reading
spelling
math

The shoes on his feet're much bigger than (   ).
mine
yours
ours
theirs

The shoes on his feet're much smaller than (   ).
mine
yours
ours
theirs

The socks on his feet're much bigger than (   ).
mine
yours
ours
theirs

The socks on his feet're much smaller than (   ).
mine
yours
ours
theirs

The socks on his feet're much wider than (   ).
mine
yours
ours
theirs

Some kinds of speech're harder to copy than (   ).
others
hers
mine
ours
theirs
yours

Some kinds of speech're easier to copy than (   ).
others
hers
mine
ours
theirs
yours

Some kinds of speech're harder to copy than (   ).
others
hers
mine
ours
theirs
yours

Some types of speech're easier to copy than (   ).
others
hers
mine
ours
theirs
yours

Your lessons in school-talk're (   ) over.
nearly
almost
about
practically
already
now

Our lessons in school-talk're (   ) over.
nearly
almost
about
practically
already
now

Their lessons in school-talk're (   ) over.
nearly
almost
about
practically
already
now

Her lessons in school-talk're (   ) over.
nearly
almost
about
practically
already
now

The people with Bob're coming (   ).
soon
today
now
tomorrow
later

The girls with Bob're coming (   ).
soon
today
now
tomorrow
later

The girls with Bob're coming (   ).
soon
today
now
tomorrow
later

The children with Bob're coming (   ).
soon
today
now
tomorrow
later

The kids with Bob're coming (   ).
soon
today
now
tomorrow
later

The boys with Bob're coming (   ).
soon
today
now
tomorrow
later

The (   ) on her bed're mine.
books
socks
papers
clothes

The (   ) on his bed're mine.
books
socks
papers
clothes

The (   ) on your bed're mine.
books
socks
papers
clothes

(   ) of the men're sitting on chairs.
All
Most
Some
Many
None

(   ) of the men're sitting on chesterfields.
All
Most
Some
Many
None

(   ) of the men're sitting on benches.
All
Most
Some
Many
None

(   ) of the men're sitting on stools.
All
Most
Some
Many
None

( ) of the men're sitting on sofas.

All
Most
Some
Many
None

The mice're eating ( ) out of his hand.

cheese
popcorn
cereal
food
vegetables

The mice're eating ( ) out of his bowl.

cheese
popcorn
cereal
food
vegetables

The mice're eating ( ) out of his box.

cheese
popcorn
cereal
food
vegetables

The mice're eating ( ) out of his dish.

cheese
popcorn
cereal
food
vegetables

The mice're eating ( ) out of his garden

cheese
popcorn
cereal
food
vegetables

Seven gray pills're left in that ( ).

bottle
jar
box
carton
case

Seven blue pills're left in that (   ).
bottle
jar
box
carton
case

Seven yellow pills're left in that (   ).
bottle
jar
carton
case

Seven white pills're left in that (   ).
bottle
jar
carton
case

Seven green pills're left in that (   ).
bottle
jar
box
carton
case

Some of the (   ) on the table're old.
knives
plates
cups
spoons
dishes

Some of the (   ) on the table're dirty.
knives
plates
cups
spoons
dishes

Some of the (   ) on the table're new.
knives
plates
cups
spoons
dishes

Some of the (   ) on the table're clean.
knives
plates
cups
spoons
dishes

Some of the (   ) on the table're pretty.
knives
plates
cups
spoons
dishes

(Repeat this as an individual drill).

The (   ) he gave to me're broken.
presents
toys
things
pencils
watches

The (   ) he gave me're little.
presents
toys
things
pencils
watches

The (   ) he gave to me're fixed.
presents
toys
things
pencils
watches

The (   ) he gave to me're interesting.
presents
toys
things
pencils
watches

The (   ) he gave to me're ugly.
presents
toys
things
pencils
watches

APPENDIX C

CONTROL GROUP STORIES

CONTROL GROUP STORIES*

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*Listed in the order presented.